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ABSTRACT

Focusing on issues and practices related to professional development at two- and four-year colleges, selected articles in the four issues of this volume include the following: "Empowering Faculty: An Alternative Method for Allocating Funds" (B. Dangerfield, D. Stover, and C. Byers); "Research Portfolios: Connecting Projects to Products" (L. Burlbaw and V. Balester); "Administrators' Leadership Ability Perceptions" (D. Jackman and M. Swan); "From Practitioner to Professor: A Reflective Vision" (D. Qualters); "Senior Faculty and the End to Mandatory Retirement: Uncovering Age-Bias in Academe" (A. Crawley); "Perceived Needs for Faculty Orientation at Arab Gulf Universities: The Case of Sultan Qaboos University" (S. Al-Lamki); "Moving From 'Two Solitudes' Towards a 'Blended' Culture in School/University Partnerships" (A. Elliott and S. Drake); "Confronting Faculty Fear of Student Teaching Evaluations: A Personal Perspective" (L. Schmier); "Faculty Attitudes toward Student Course Evaluations" (G. Bollin, D. Bolton, and S. Kletzien); "Teaching Practices of Higher Education Program Faculty: An Analysis of Selected Syllabi" (M. Miller and G. Nelson); "Coaching Faculty to Succeed on Interactive Television Networks" (B. Millis and E. Sapp); "Giving Voice to the Silent Ones: Electronic Discussion in a College Literature Course" (T. Reber); "An Exploratory Study of the Role of Part-Time Administrators in Small, Private Liberal Arts Colleges" (S. Kokovich, C. Drubel, and J. Creswell); "Mentoring, Counseling, and Advising: A Coordinated Approach for Reentry and Nontraditional Women" (K. Thompson); "A Formative Evaluation of the New Brunswick Community College Instructor Development Program" (E. Herbeson and P. Post); "The Role of Staff Development in Improving the Quality of Learning and Adapting to Changing Conditions" (C. Kapp); "A Partnership Model for Improving Teaching and Learning--Step One: Building the Database" (H. Carlson, L. Hilsen, M. O'Brien, and D. Petersen-Perlman); "Faculty Involvement in Governance: A Comparison of Two Faculties" (M. Miller, T. McCormack, and R. Newman); and "Is Teaching and Learning a Priority? Conduct an Audit and Find Out" (T. O'Banion). (TGI)

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Karron G. Lewis

Editor

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By Byron J. Dangerfield, Dana Stover, & C. Randall Byers

Empowering Faculty: An Alternative Method for Allocating Funds

Managers are discovering the organizational and individual benefits of decentralized decision making. However, in higher education certain decisions remain fairly centralized, particularly budgetary decisions. An approach for allocating faculty funds, which capitalizes on the benefits of granting faculty discretion over budgetary decisions, is described.

MANAGEMENT researchers have established the benefits for empowering employees. Among them are increased commitment, higher morale, improved creativity, increased productivity, and greater involvement (Wellins, Byham & Wilson, 1991). Allowing employees greater control and discretion over many types of work decisions has long been known to have a positive impact on many personal and work-related outcomes (Hackman & Olham, 1976). Empowerment is also in conformance with the principles of total quality management — a current philosophy of management widely used in private industry and becoming more applicable to all organizations. Managers are recognizing the organizational and individual benefits of pushing decision-making authority to lower levels of the firm (Nadler & Gerstein, 1992). These management principles are designed to make the best use of all resources by spreading decision making throughout the organization — especially to the lower levels where frontline workers, those who deal directly with the "product," have some control over the process.

Traditionally in higher education, faculty have possessed relatively high levels of academic autonomy. For example, they often have great freedom in the content and style of their teaching and research. The professional training required of faculty instills a standard of behavior which acts as a substitute for centralized decision making (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Norms and expectations are created among professionals which operate most effectively under decentralized systems (Padsakoff, Williams, & Todor, 1986). However, there are some areas of decision making which have remained highly centralized in educational systems. In particular, budget allocations are often controlled by a central administration in higher education. Faculty have little, if any, control or influence on the disposition of funds. What little control instructors may have over budgetary allocations is exerted in the form of lobbying and politicizing, often resulting in departmental or college divi-

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siveness. Such behavior is especially likely to occur when funding resources are scare and when competition for such resources is heavy (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1974).

The politicization of the budgetary process is less an issue in institutions or departments where faculty provide most of their own funding through grants and donations. In such cases, individuals generally have more autonomy over their budgets and control the use of funds. However, the majority of funds faculty receive remain those which are allocated and distributed by the administration. The centralized control exhibited in higher education over budgetary decisions is counter to the professional norms and expectations of the faculty for autonomy. Aside from the increased political behavior and divisiveness following such centralized decision making, job satisfaction and commitment of faculty may also be impaired (Imber & Neidt, 1990; Rosenholtz, 1990).

Education not only differs from business in terms of professional norms but also in leadership development. Private-sector businesses typically groom subordinates for increasing responsibilities as they move up the corporate ladder. In education, however, administrative succession is not part of the typical long term plan. It is not uncommon to see faculty move into administrative roles as department heads/chairs without training or managerial experience. This form of administrative succession in academia exacerbates the problems inherent in the centralized administrative structure. Often these new departmental chairs demonstrate their newfound authority by exercising a Machiavellian central control of all administrative functions, especially budgetary.

Departmental chairs often find themselves in a difficult, conflicting role brought about by serving in a part academic position with a standard of autonomy and in an administrative position in a highly centralized structure. Gmelch (1993) describes this position as a "swivel chair." He points out inherent conflicts associated with this dual role and that new departmental administrators find themselves facing significant increases on their time demands. One of his suggestions for redesign of the chair's position is a need to purge administrative trivia - the unneeded paper work and meetings which place burdensome constraints on the administrator's time.

Thus, new chairs face a new role, increased time demands, and increased budgetary authority. University faculty operate freely in a loosely-coupled environment but typically lack budgetary authority. This lack of control over resources frustrates some and causes inherent conflicts or political behavior to occur in their dealings with the department head. Methods to improve this situation are desirable.

This paper describes an approach adopted by a Department of Business in a northwestern university for increasing teacher autonomy and reducing administrative overhead in budgetary decision making. Specifically, an alternative method for disbursing departmental support funds, referred to as Personal Discretionary Funds (PDFs), where the faculty are at least partially empowered to determine the use of those funds, is discussed. Not only does such discretionary use reduce political posturing and administrative burdens within a department, but it also positively effects faculty satisfaction. As such, the paper demonstrates a cost-effective way of achieving a degree of empowerment for faculty in an educational institution. The paper also examines the effect of empowerment on budget expenditures; the monetary cost of decentralized budgets is described and analyzed.

Employee Empowerment

The concept of empowerment is being increasingly utilized by both the popular press as well as researchers investigating issues of human motivation and performance. Although it remains a somewhat nebulous construct, empowerment is generally defined as the delegation of authority and responsibility (Wellin, et. al., 1991, p.22). Empowerment occurs when power goes to employees who then experience a sense of ownership and control over their jobs. Allocating workers greater autonomy and decision-making authority in the work-place has been shown to be positively related to various personal and work-related outcomes, including improved quality and quantity of production (Nadler & Gerstein, 1992; Semler 1989), decreased turnover and absenteeism (Walton, 1985), and greater employee job satisfaction (Griffin, 1991).

The concept of empowerment has its roots in several schools of management research, most notably that of job design. Early work by Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) found that certain characteristics of the work situation seemed almost always to affect employee satisfaction. These characteristics, which Herzberg labeled as motivators, dealt with more intrinsic factors of the job content such as degree of worker control and responsibility. These early ideas helped develop later work on job enrichment. Job enrichment is a form of job design based on the idea that giving job holders the discretion to choose work-related activities as well as job outcomes will improve their job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Subsequent testing of this relationship has been supportive in a variety of work settings (Griffen, Welsch, & Moorhead, 1981; Griffen, 1991). The idea of providing employees with greater control over aspects of their employment is the driving force behind the successful cafeteria-benefit packages, which are increasingly being adopted by companies. Such plans permit employees choice among many alternatives in deciding which benefits they will receive (e.g., health care, dental, maternity, additional vacation, retirement supplement, etc.). Companies adopting cafeteria packages have reported greater employee retention and satisfaction (Kenney, 1986; Velleman, 1985).

Empowering employees thus permits workers control over work decisions and also the freedom to select more highly valued job outcome choices. In turn, such autonomy can lead to increased job satisfaction. Allowing discretionary use over budgetary funds is one way to ensure both decision making control as well as high outcome priorities. In the following section, details concerning how one such decentralized budgetary process was implemented in a university Department of Business are discussed.

Implementation of Personal Discretionary Funds

The initial impetus for decentralizing budgetary control was to make administrative tasks easier. After a semester's experience dealing with faculty requests for use of departmental funds, the department head realized a better method of dispensing funds must be available. While most of the faculty requests were well founded, some were trivial, some unreasonable, and some unfair to other faculty members. All requests consumed valuable faculty and administrative time. Additionally, faculty members, accustomed to freer rein, resented having to depend upon administration for these decisions. It became evident that many of these issues could be resolved by providing a pool of discretionary funds to each faculty member. Such pools would greatly reduce administrative overhead to both faculty and the department head at the cost of an increase in staff workload necessary to account for the multiple budgets.

PDF accounts were established by shifting funds from the Irregular Help (IH) budget line. IH was used primarily to hire temporary graders for classes and occasionally for research assistance. This line item, while available to all faculty, was not equitably distributed in use. Many faculty preferred to grade student work themselves or had class types which prohibited student graders. As a result some faculty used high proportions of IH funds while others used none. Those using none argued that they should receive a higher proportion of other funds like travel (TR), capital outlay (CO), or operating expenses (OE). Aggravating this perceived inequity was a relatively new merit pay system. The system equally rewarded teaching and research and had a very steep slope for merit increases, with top-rated faculty sometimes receiving double digit increases while low-rated faculty received near zero increases. To ensure all faculty had equal opportunity for high merit increments, it was necessary to level the playing field. That principle implied that the distribution of support funds should be relatively equal. Provision of discretionary funds would allow faculty members to chose which activities, i.e., grading, professional development or research support, would best suit their personal strategy.

Thus, PDF accounts were established. The amount in each account needed to be sufficient to allow significant alternate choices in lieu of graders and at least large enough to cover full grading requirements for all instructors. As a precautionary measure, it was decided to distribute funds by semester and monitor actual usage. Since the initial distribution of funds was made in the spring semester, only funds from one half of the fiscal year budget were at risk. The maximum use of IH by any faculty member prior to the implementation of this policy was about $600, with the average around $250; thus, the initial distribution was set at $500. Some IH funds were held in reserve in the department for hiring office help and as a buffer against unplanned expenses.

PDFs were established via a memorandum published to all department faculty. The Appendix contains a copy of the memorandum which established the rules for using and transferring discretionary funds. Great latitude was allowed for faculty to use their own discretion, even to the extent they could form consortia for obtaining higher cost items.

Results

The most immediate result was the decrease in the administrative load. Trivial requests soon disappeared. Fac-

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics on IH Satisfaction Survey[1]

Survey Question	Mean	S. D.
How satisfied with IH funds?	4.58[2]	.75
Should IH funds no longer be offered?	1.19[3]	.42
Believe IH funds administered fairly?	4.64[4]	.56
Recommend to other departments? YES = 89% NO = 0% DON'T KNOW = 11%		

[1] N=18
[2] 1=very unsatisfied 5=very satisfied
[3] 1=strongly disagree 5=strongly agree
[4] 1=strongly disagree 5=strongly agree

ulty quickly adjusted to the new system and experimented with new ways to use the discretionary funds. Initially, much of that experimentation was with the department head to see how much latitude they really had. Requests that had been commonplace soon were no longer made — especially after the answer, "Use your discretionary funds," established the limits of their discretion.

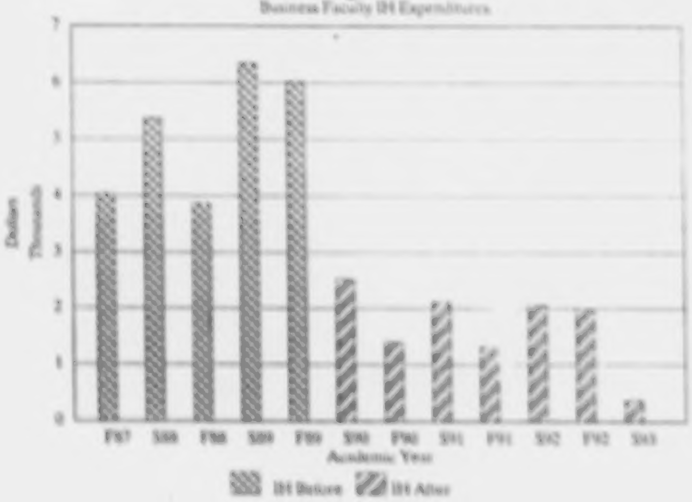
After seven semesters of use faculty have reported strong satisfaction with the discretionary budgets. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics from a faculty survey on the PDFs. The Cronbach Alpha of .77 for these questions indicates high scale reliability.

As can be seen from Table 1, faculty expressed high satisfaction with the PDFs; reporting an average score of 4.58 on a 5-point scale. Most faculty also strongly disagreed with a statement on whether PDFs should be abandoned (mean score= 1.19).

Open-ended comments solicited from faculty indicated the best-liked feature of the PDFs were the freedom and flexibility they offered. Many faculty noted they were now able to prioritize their outcomes and select items which were most important to them personally. The primary criticism of the funds was insufficient monies. This criticism itself reflects the success of the program. The majority of faculty (89%) would recommend such a system to other departments. Thus, while the original aim of the discretionary funds (reduction of administrative burden) was successfully met, a secondary benefit of the program soon became evident. Faculty expressed strong positive attitudes concerning the autonomy granted by the PDFs.

The effect of discretionary budgets on the distribution and magnitude of expenditures was dramatic. In Figure 1, IH expenditures over 12 semesters are shown. PDF accounts were started in Spring 1990. Average IH expenditures over the previous five semesters was $12,909 per semester. After IH was made discretionary, the average use plunged 44% to $7,220 per semester and the amount is still decreasing. Most of the decrease was due to a reduction in faculty expenditures for graders and research assistants; this use decreased from an average of $5,127 to $1,684.

Figure 1



Clearly, faculty expenditures changed as they took some control of budgetary decision making.

Another dramatic shift occurred in the relative proportion allocated to each line item in the budget. Funds in these line items are totally interchangeable. The department head receives a total budget amount and allocates funds to line items. He/she can easily shift funds from one line item to another. Figure 2 shows the effects on line items for the department as a whole. The systematic decrease in the IH requirements has allowed increases in other line items. The proportion of IH has decreased 54% from 52% of the budget in the five semesters prior to the shift to 24% in the seven semesters after the shift while travel (TR) has increased by 46% from 17% of the budget to 25% and supplies (CO and OE) increased by 63% from 32% of the budget to 51%. The overall reduction in IH has allowed an increase in other line items.

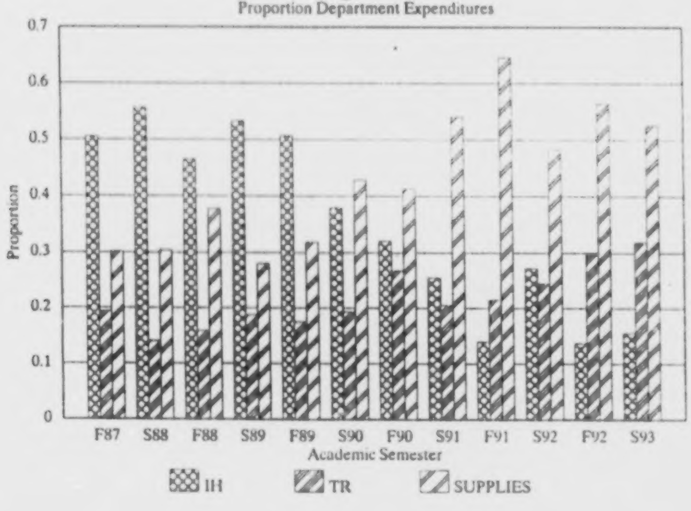
It is also informative to note the trend in how the discretionary funds are used. Figure 3 shows the proportions used from discretionary funds for IH, travel, and supplies for the faculty's discretionary accounts. Clearly, the trend shows a substitution of IH for supplies. Most of the supplies have been computer hardware, computer software, journals, and other research materials. Another significant phenomenon has been the use of travel from these budgets. Most travel is still directly funded by the department travel funds. However, these funds are limited and once they are gone, faculty shift to their PDFs and outside sources to fund needed travel. Discretionary travel has been used largely to match or supplement external travel funds from grants or programs. Thus, there has been a multiplier effect for these monies.

To conserve IH funds, faculty have also procured more work study money. This money is distributed by the university to employ students to help support their education. Faculty work study funds increased by 17% since the inception of discretionary budgets. Prior to the implementation of PDFs, there was no incentive for individual faculty to solicit work study funds — now there clearly is. This is another effect which multiplies departmental funds.

This program, however, is not without limitations. Some faculty from other

Figure 2

Proportion Department Expenditures



departments questioned the practice. Some viewed the faculty with PDFs as having more resources per capita because of highly visible purchases (e.g., new laser printers) even though department allocations were equal. More accounting may also be required to keep track of the budgets. In this case the increase in workload was partially offset by a parallel increase in technology. Department staff built spreadsheets to help handle the increased burden. Staff were also consulted on this plan prior to implementation to insure sufficient capacity existed to administer the budgets. Without such consultation, staff morale could be affected. Finally, carryover funds from one fiscal year to the next tend to be higher. In a recent statewide budgetary holdback, those funds were susceptible to capture by the administration or state. This prospect has caused more faculty to expend their funds more quickly than might otherwise be the case.

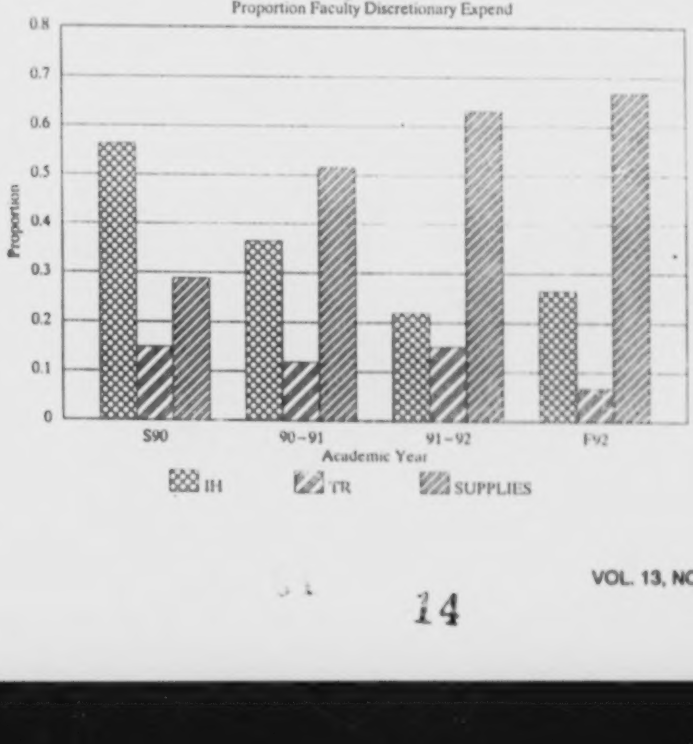
Discussion

In this paper, the use of personal discretional funds as an alternative way to allocate fiscal resources was described. As evidenced by one Department of Business, these PDF accounts have resulted in high faculty satisfaction, reduced administrative workload, and changes in how faculty funds are spent.

Such discretionary funding capitalizes on the current trend in organizations toward employee autonomy and decentralization of decision making. Indeed, as professionals, it is almost imperative that faculty be allowed such autonomy. For instance, Padsakoff, Williams and Todor (1986) found that professionals who were governed by high organizational formalization manifested higher levels of organizational alienation than nonprofes- sionals in a similar environment. Similarly, Imber and Neidt (1990) argued that teachers must be allowed participation in decision making if job satisfaction is to be enhanced. The college faculty reported high satisfaction with the freedom and autonomy of the PDF accounts. This autonomy supports the norms developed among faculty. Prior to development of the PDF accounts, faculty were often aggrieved to have to rely upon central administration for funding allocations; such dependency violated professional norms.

Figure 3

Proportion Faculty Discretionary Expend



An additional benefit of decentralized organizations is enhanced productivity. Decision speed, quality, and output is often improved under decentralized systems (Wellins, et. al., 1991). In higher education, faculty productivity is affected by numerous factors - not solely work autonomy. Because of these multiple influences, faculty productivity was not directly measured. However, PDFs allow individual faculty members the freedom to decide what expenditures will most benefit their personal productivity strategy. For instance, many faculty members mentioned that PDFs allow additional journals, books, and software to be purchased, or additional conferences to be attended — all factors which ultimately contribute to faculty productivity. Prior to implementation of the PDFs, when monies were spent directly on graders, the link between these funds and productivity was much more nebulous. Professional development has been directly enhanced by the increased expenditures in travel and supplies.

PDFs have greatly eased the amount of administrative attention needed to allocate faculty resources. As such, the departmental chair position is much less burdened and perhaps a more attractive position. Faculty satisfaction and reduced administrative burdens were anticipated consequences of PDF implementation. What was not entirely expected was the dramatic change in expenditures, especially in the IH budget line. After PDF accounts were established, did graders suddenly become less useful to faculty, more dispensable? At least one factor probably accounts for the pronounced decrease in IH. Prior to PDFs, faculty had no control over budget expenditures. However, a pool of money was available for graders. To maintain internal equity, most faculty members felt compelled to utilize some of this money, despite perhaps having no great need for graders. However, when the pool of money became under individual faculty member control, much more judicious use of funds was applied. Expenditures became more scrutinized and prioritized, in order to maximize outcome value.

Conclusion

The empowerment of faculty through personal discretionary funds proved to be most advantageous, as evidenced by one University department. The benefits attributed it from management theory are obtained, along with surprising, additional beneficial effects on expenditures of scarce resources. While the PDF approach requires additional staff time to administer the multiple accounts, with today's technology that cost is relatively low, and is outweighed by the gains made by granting faculty greater autonomy in budgetary decision making.

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Byron J. Dangerfield, Dean of College of Business and Economics,University of Idaho,Moscow, ID 83844-3161

Dana Stover,Human Resources Management,College of Business and Economics,University of Idaho,Moscow, ID 83844-3161

C. Randall Byers,Department of Business,College of Business and Economics,University of Idaho,Moscow, ID 83844-3161

APPENDIX

MEMORANDUM
TO: Department of Business Faculty
FROM: Department Chair

The management of departmental funds will be partially decentralized to allow individual faculty members some discretion in fund usage. The signature of the department chairman is still required on all official documents, so faculty members must still obtain final approval.

Rules for using the funds are as follows:

1. Hiring graders should still be the primary use of these funds.
2. Research assistants may also be hired.
3. Other categories of expenditures (i.e., not IH) may also be selected, such as hardware, software, books, mailings, journals, supplies, and travel.
4. If an account becomes "bankrupt" and has only been used for grading assistance, I will attempt to find more funds to augment that account. Otherwise, "when you're out, you're out," and I will no longer accept time slips from IH personnel.
5. A secondary market may develop. Transfers from one account to another will be accepted upon written request from the donor.
6. Reasonable year-end balances will carry over to the next budget, both positive and negative.

Some things to note:

1. Finding work-study students will greatly conserve these funds. Work-study is university money; the amount is usually $800-$1,000 per semester.
2. Beginning IH rates vary according to student class:
   Juniors: $4.00/hour
   Seniors: $4.25/hour
   Grads: $6.00/hour
3. A monthly accounting will be provided.

Attached is your IH fund accounting for Fall Semester, 1990.

By Lynn M. Burlbaw & Valerie M. Balester

Research Portfolios: Connecting Projects to Products

The traditional academic vitae does not adequately describe a research agenda. Research portfolios provide a vehicle for presentation and documentation of research activity in a coordinated, concise manner. When used by development specialists, the research portfolio helps faculty members develop and document and show the relevance of their research agendas to their institution and disciplines.

PORTFOLIOS. Authentic Assessment. Today, one need not look far to find numerous articles and books (Arter, 1992; Calfee & Perfumo, 1993; Cooper, 1992; Krest, 1990; Kingore, 1993; Valencia, Hiebert, & Afflerbach, 1994; Yancey, 1992) on the use of portfolios as a form of authentic assessment to evaluate student work. The portfolio evaluation system differs markedly from what might be called the traditional portfolio used by architects, models, and other creative artists, even though the systems use the same name. Student portfolios show work in progress and development of expertise over time; artistic portfolios, on the other hand, showcase only the best of the artist's work. An academic version of the artist's portfolio, the teaching portfolio, has been championed by Peter Seldin and his colleagues (Seldin, 1991; Seldin, 1993).

Seldin justifies the need for a teaching portfolio because most academic vitae give the lion's share of their space to research to the neglect of teaching. While this may generally be true, one should not assume that research is adequately described in a traditional vita format. Seldin's response to the inadequacy of documentation of teaching excellence is the teaching portfolio; we suggest that a research portfolio is an appropriate response to what is seen as an inadequate documentation of research activity and focus. The research portfolio, presented in this paper, provides a vehicle for presentation and documentation of research activity in a coordinated, concise manner. The creation of the research portfolio can be used by development specialists (e.g., full professors, directors of research institutes, promotion and tenure committees) to help faculty members display and support their research in a more meaningful way. The research portfolio, when completed, can demonstrate a conceptual framework, thoughtful planning, and research organizational skills. These important aspects of faculty development are inadequately served by the traditional vita.

This paper begins with a discussion of the short comings of current practice and suggests that a research portfolio would do a more adequate job of detailing one's research. After outlining the three sections of a research portfolio, we con-

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clude the paper with a detailed examination of the *Research Project Information Sheet*, the item which we see as carrying the bulk of the information supporting and documenting the researcher's claims found in the narrative of the portfolio.

Current Practice: Curriculum Vita

The traditional vita, usually organized by genre (book, chapter, refereed article, etc.) and in chronological order, requires the reader to make connections between its various parts. Often the relationship between a presentation or workshop and a subsequent publication can be inferred only when a similar title is used. However, even when the same title is used, the connections may be difficult to make when the entries appear three or four, or even more, pages apart. Further, a vita does not reveal how major research publications relate to one another, much less to teaching and service. In short, a vita presents the means by which research is disseminated, the end products (e.g., presentations, journal articles, monographs), but it does nothing to describe how these products emanate from the context of organized inquiry. Thus, much valuable information about research is lacking in a vita, information that, when present, makes it far easier for those outside a researcher's field to judge the value and contribution of the inquiry. To provide a means whereby the research agenda would be more adequately displayed and highlighted, we propose the creation of a research portfolio.

Proposed Practice: Research Portfolio

The research portfolio, in contrast to the curriculum vita, is organized to highlight the relations between different outcomes of particular research projects and to show how these projects relate to one another, regardless of genre or chronology. The emphasis is on an agenda—on goals and outcomes. In this paper we suggest a list of desirable contents, with a rationale for their inclusion, and a standard information form which we have developed to document research activity.

The goal of a research portfolio should be to demonstrate an understanding of the context in which scholarly activity is taking place and to highlight the relationship between the different parts of research projects being conducted by the faculty member. The research portfolio consists of three sections; one, a rationale for research; two, a description of research activities, and three, documentation to support author's claims about research being conducted. Each section has subordinate parts which contribute to the goal of the section. Figures 1 and 2 show the tables of contents of Lynn Burlbaw's and Valerie Balester's research portfolios.

Table of Contents

Introduction
Redearch Agenda
Redearch Activities
    Focus One: Public School Students
    Focus Two: Preparation of Teachers at the University Level
Coincidence with Departmental and University Mission
References
Appendices
    Appendix A: Focus One: Public School Students
    Appendix B: Focus Two: Preparation of Teachers at the University Level
    Appendix C: Dissemination of Research Findings
    Appendic C: Dissemination of Research Findings

FIGURE 1 — Table of Contents

While the tables are somewhat different, the content of each of the sections is represented. The following paragraphs provide an rationale and explanation for each of the three sections.

Table of Contents

Research Agenda
Expected Outcomes
Methodology
Coincidence with University / Departmental Missions
Recognition of Research
Appendix 1—Cultural Divide
Appendix 2—Hyperfluency
Appendix 3—Computer Conferencing
Appendix 4—Writing Centers
Appendix 5—Reviews of Cultural Divide
Appendix 6—Comments on 1992 CCCC Talk
Appendix 7—Center for Teaching Excellence Scholar Designation
Appendix 8—Center for Teaching Excellence Incentive Grant

FIGURE 2—Table of Contents

Section One: Rationale for Research

In this section, the researcher presents a justification for the research in the context of the field and the researcher's institution. The items which contribute to this from Burlbaw's table of contents are the "Introduction, Research Agenda, and Coincidence with Departmental and University Mission."

Research Agenda: This section could also be called Research Questions/Problems. It is an important section and perhaps should be fairly long (3 to 5 pages) because it sets the tone for the portfolio. It shows how the disparate projects one is working on fit together to form a complete and worthwhile research agenda. The narrative here provides the reader with a context for one's research, relating it to both the needs of society and other work being done in the field (in one's own and other institutions).

The intent is to demonstrate that the problems being investigated are problems worthy of the time and resources being expended on them. Others should understand that by investigating these problems, the researcher hopes to reach particular goals, perhaps solving a practical or theoretical problem, or a part of a larger problem. This is the place to discuss both long- and short-term goals, to show how the research is useful on a number of levels — an immediate level (proving or disproving a hypothesis, for example) and a disciplinary level. Both the practical and theoretical outcomes of the research might also be explored.

Also, in this section, the researcher should explain how philosophical or theoretical orientations toward the discipline and research direct the choice of research methodology used. The stage is set in this section for the presentation of information on the researcher's projects; both current and those completed as part of the current focus.

Coincidence with Departmental and University Mission: This partdescribes how the researcher's work relates to the missions of his or her department and university. The intent is to show that the work is integrated and that research has positive benefits to the university community, especially for the students with whom the researcher works (e.g., graduate research assistants and master's and doctoral advisees). In this part the researcher explains how the results of research may inform teaching practice.

This second part of the justification for research has been placed after the Description of Research Activity section (see Figure 1). We placed this part after the descriptions of research in order to highlight the contribution of the research to a narrower field or arena of action. Just as the Research Agenda, provided the larger context of the research, this later part provides for specific benefits which are related to the university and department and directly impact matters of promotion and tenure in a more immediate way.

Section Two: Description of Research Activities

The section entitled Research Activities or Project Descriptions allows the researcher to write about what has been done, what is planned, and current investigation, relating these as much as possible to the larger goals discussed in the section on Rationale for Research. In this section, specific links between various projects are outlined and the growth of a research agenda traced from one project to another. As projects are completed, or as research foci change, it may be appropriate to segregate these projects from the current, on-going projects. As seen in Figure 1, a researcher may have multiple foci in a research agenda. The project description section allows the researcher to explain how various research activities are tied together and how the knowledge gained in one may cross over from one foci to another.

The narrative concerning a project will not provide all of the information about the participants, funding, findings, and dissemination of the project; rather, the reader should be referred to the appropriate appendix where complete details would be found on a *Research Project Information Sheet.* Completed projects may be referred to and shown in a separate appendix.

Section Three: Supporting Materials

The first two sections, rationale for research and description of research activities provide a concise overview of the researcher's activities. A more detailed description is found in the third section, documentation to support author's claims about research being conducted

Two types of documentation are suggested. Since the basic overview of the research is contained in the first two parts of the portfolio, we recommend that the supporting documentation be placed in one or more appendices. First, as shown in Figure 1 are appendices dealing with the details of individual projects. This appendix, as we propose, consists of compiled *Research Project Information Sheets* which have detailed information on each project (Burlbaw's Appendices A & B; Balester's Appendices 1-4).

The second type of appendix shows the concrete products of research and assessments of research, including publications (in manuscript or final form) and responses from others to one's work (letters, e-mail messages, citations, reviews) (Burlbaw's Appendix C; Balester's Appendices 5-8). This appendix can also include examples of the dissemination referred to in earlier sections of the portfolio and the project description section.

Research Project Information Sheet: The research project information sheet provides the bulk of the information about a researcher's work. On this sheet is found the information which justifies and drives the research. Two completed *Research Project Information Sheets* are found in Appendix A of this article. As we see the *Research Project Information Sheet* as an integral part of the research portfoloi, a brief explanation and rationale for each section is included here.

- **Title**: Giving a title to a research project provides conceptual structure to the work being done and helps clarify for readers the connections between various research projects. The designation of a project with a title also provides a way of organizing and keeping materials related to projects. Rather than keeping materials in manila folders or envelopes, files can be created to store the various parts of a project.
- **Research Team**: While researchers often work alone, more and more, teams of researchers collaborate on

projects, both in the design and in the execution of the research. Beginning professors and researchers sometimes have the opportunity to collaborate with more experienced researchers—this collaboration should be noted and the role relationship clarified. Listing collaborators or team members is also a way to show how the work relates to the researcher's field or discipline and the department.

- **Dates:** Research is an on-going process. The Research Project Information Sheet provides a way of showing the various stages of research by listing several types of dates.

  Dates Associated with Project: Researchers often join research projects already being conducted. If this is not an original project, or someone joins the project as a junior or co-investigator after the project has begun, this date provides information to the reader.

  Beginning and Ending: These dates serve several purposes. First, the dates provide a chronology for the work being done. This chronology shows the growth and development of research ideas over a career. Second, the writing of dates provides a time structure within which one would work. By projecting an ending date, psychologically one is forced to attend to the research in an attempt to reach closure.

  Important Dates During Project: The inclusion of key or critical dates encountered or planned for the project help the reader understand why particular phases have to be or were completed at particular times.

- **Topic of concern addressed in research:** This may be reported in the form of the hypothesis(es) chosen for the project or in the form of a narrative statement about why this research is important and how it contributes to the overall research agenda.

- **Procedure**: This section outlines the general procedures used to conduct the research. This forces the researcher to think through the research strategy to determine if the outcomes sought and the methodology adopted are compatible. Different types of research call for different research strategies. While this may be a given, not all readers of the research portfolio may be familiar with the particular methodology adopted. They may not understand why the particular method chosen is appropriate for a research agenda. The researcher should also address reasons for choosing the particular method, relating the method to goals and objectives. The question one seeks to answer in research may require the researcher to use different methodologies on different projects. This section provides clarification of procedures.

- **Findings**: Few people will read the complete report written about a research project. This section is a summary of the major findings of the research and tells how those findings relate to the initial question(s) guiding a particular research project and to the overall research agenda.

  If appropriate, information may be included to show how the knowledge gained from the research was translated into or used in teaching.

- **Dissemination**: The dissemination of research findings is an important part of doing research. While the ultimate disposition of research should not drive the research conducted (philosophical and intellectual needs should determine that), having an outlet for research findings may guide both the design and data collection strategies. Dissemination should not be thought of as only publication but should include conference presentations and workshops.

- **Funding**: The majority of research conducted is not funded by outside sources. By showing from where the financial support for research has come, the researcher is able to demonstrate the value and importance of research, not only to the discipline and department, but to other organizations and institutions. Funding may be as simple as release time from teaching courses to provide opportunity to conduct research.

Once completed, the *Research Project Information Sheet* provides a concise description of each research project one is conducting. The sheets, taken together, provide a reader with a picture of the scope of the researcher's agenda and how one part is related to another. By periodically updating the information sheets, one is forced to focus on his or her agenda and deal with those projects which have been pushed aside in the stress and strain of everyday academics.

Possible Additional Sections

The three sections and their supporting parts we have suggested for the research portfolio are ones which we found to be useful. Just as research is an idiosyncratic endeavor, so to is the research portfolio; any number of sections may be added and those already proposed modified or eliminated. Some possible additions are

- Nominations and Awards Received for Research
- Grants Awarded
- Other Recognition
- Letters from Colleagues or other Researchers

Other sections could be added, some may be interesting but not significant. Additions should only be made if they more clearly or fully contribute to the reader's understanding of the research agenda of the preparer.

Summary

In this paper we have attempted to provide a rationale for the adoption of a new format for reporting research activity, that of the research portfolio. The portfolio would provide a coordinated, concise way of demonstrating to readers and evaluators that the researcher has an agenda and goals, that the researcher is aware of both disciplinary and institutional contexts, and that a theoretical basis underlies the work. The portfolio would also provide information on how the various projects being worked on at a particular time are related and build one upon another. The details of individual projects are summarized in the suggested appendices and dissemination of the research findings are also documented.

We suggest that the creation and maintenance of a research portfolio would be beneficial to all faculty and would be particularly beneficial to beginning professors as they attempt to define and refine their research agenda in their work towards promotion and tenure. And though the research portfolio is idiosyncratic, just as is a research agenda, a research portfolio should be prepared in conjunction with other professionals and researchers whose comments and feedback can enrich the thinking and work of the portfolio preparer. Workshops and individual consultations, focusing on the development and presentation of a research agenda through a portfolios, could be used by those interested in promoting research among junior faculty and colleagues, whether for the purpose of promotion and tenure or advancement of knowledge.

The acceptance and value of a research portfolio as part of the promotion and tenure process has not been tested, although discussions with promotion and tenure committee members and a Dean of Faculties at a major institution indicate that the portfolio would be looked upon favorably when used in conjunction with other measures of research, teaching, and service.

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Lynn M. Burlbaw received his PhD in Curriculum and Instruction with an emphasis in social studies and teacher education in 1989 from The University of Texas at Austin. Burlbaw became an assistant professor in Social Studies and Curriculum education in the Department of Curriculum and Instructional at Texas A&M University in 1989. His areas of research interest are the improvement of teaching and learning of social studies both in public schools and university settings. He has numerous publications in journals relating to social studies and curriculum. He was the recipient of the first Center for Teaching Excellence Scholar Award for the College of Education in 1990. Burlbaw completed his first teaching portfolio under the direction of Linda Annis at the Teaching Portfolio workshop conducted on the campus of Texas A&M University in June 1992.

Valerie M. Balester received her degree in English and Rhetoric from The University of Texas at Austin in 1988. Balester became an assistant professor of English at Texas A&M University in 1988. She currently teaches first year and advanced composition and courses in rhetoric. With the help of Texas A&M University graduate students, she founded the Texas A&M University Writing Center. She is the Associate Director of Writing Programs in the Department of English. Her research interests include African-American rhetoric, computer usage and writing, small group or individual writing conferences. She was the recipient of the first Center for Teaching Excellence Scholar Award for the College of Liberal Arts in 1990. Balester completed her first teaching portfolio under the direction of Ray Shackelford at the Teaching Portfolio workshop conducted on the campus of Texas A&M University in June 1992.

APPENDIX A
Research Project Information Sheet

Project Title: Developing an Understanding of Mapping Skills
Research Team: Lynn Burlbaw
Date Associated with Project:
Beginning Date: Spring 1992 Ending Date: Ongoing
Important Dates During Project:

Topic of concern addressed in Research:

Students see maps displayed in classrooms and textbooks. In recent years many maps from the past have begun to make their way into textbooks and the popular press, especially as a result of the Columbus Quincentennial. Map projection remains problematic and students do not understand the difficulties associated with transferring information from a large site to a smaller record, especially those associated with representing a round earth on a flat surface.

Procedure:

Students took a test over knowledge on difficulties associated with making maps before participating in a map lab where various teams of students drew a map from different perspectives and using different measuring tools. After completion of the mapping exercise students analyzed their experience and the maps produced were viewed and differences and difficulties in producing maps were discussed. A pre and post test showed that students had a better understanding of the difficulties early explorers may have encountered as they tried to portray a round earth on a flat surface.

Findings:

Students have difficulty in drawing maps due to a lack of experience but are able to improve their understanding of the difficulties associated with map making after participating in a map lab.

Dissemination:

One manuscript has been published (Burlbaw, Lynn M. (1993).Developing an Understanding of Difficulties in Constructing Maps. *Social Studies Texan*). A second manuscript is under preparation to report the types of errors and difficulties encountered as students mapped a site.

Funding:

This is an unfunded research project.

Research Project Information Sheet

Project Title: Cultural Divide

Topic: The spoken and written discourse of eight successful African American college students and how they accommodate to academic discourse.

Dates: Research and initial publication: 1987-1991; Publication of major results pending, fall, 1993 in book form, Boynton/Cook—Heinemann.

Procedure: Case study method comparing spoken and written texts, from semi-formal to formal. Analysis is primarily rhetorical and besides texts includes statements of attitudes and a survey of literature on Black English Vernacular and African American rhetoric. The effect of the research and researcher on the data is taken into account, and the subjects are invited to respond to the researcher's interpretation of their texts.

Findings: Attitudes are a complex factor that must be considered in analyzing the writing processes of African American students. Most have both negative and positive views of Black English Vernacular and of Standard English which depend on individual experiences. In any case, attitudes affect the degree to which students are willing to draw upon Black English Vernacular and African American rhetoric in writing. Influences from various African American rhetorical traditions such as storytelling and fancy talk were observed in written texts. Some of the subjects showed great flexibility in using African American rhetorical forms to enhance their academic writing—although these strategies interfered with an academic ethos in other cases.

Dissemination: An early version of this research is reported in "The Social Construction of Ethos," Diss. University of Texas at Austin, 1988. Conference papers include: (1) "The Social Construction of Voice," Penn State Conference on Rhetoric and Composition, 1987; (2) "Talk Sweet and Hedge Your Bets: Ethos in the Spoken and Written Discourse of a Black College Student," Rhetoric Society of America, 1988; (3) "Ethos in the Narrative of a Black College Student," Linguistics Colloquium, Texas A&M Department of English, 1989; and (4) "Ethnosensitivity in Composition Research," Penn State Conference on Rhetoric and Composition, 1990. Also published is a refereed chapter in a book: "A Reexamination of Attitudes Toward Black English Vernacular." In *Constructing Rhetorical Education: From the Classroom to the Community*. M. Secor and D. Charney. (eds) Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press, 1991. However, the most comprehensive version of this research is the manuscript "Cultural Divide." After analyzing some data not included in the dissertation, reanalyzing and reorganizing the whole, and conducting a substantially broader review of the literature on African American rhetoric, I added approximately 100 pages of text and cut approximately 80. "Cultural Divide" has been accepted for publication by Boynton/Cook—Heinemann, a well-known composition press.

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By Diane H. Jackman & Michael K. Swan

Administrators' Leadership Ability Perceptions

The leadership skills and abilities of the administrators in higher education will determine the success or failure of higher education institutions in the twenty-first century. The purpose of this study was to examine and report on the leadership perceptions of academic administrators.

THE LEADERSHIP skills and abilities of the administrators in higher education will determine the success or failure of higher education institutions in the twenty-first century.

The role of an administrator has been viewed variously as building manager, politician, change agent, boundary spanner, and/or instructional leader. Clark (1983) noted that as the administration field becomes more professionalized, it is critical that new administrators keep in touch with the instructional function of the university, especially when many new administrators had no academic background.

Administrators arg the leaders of their units or organizations. Educational leaders assume enormous obligations under a university system in a democratic society; the most important obligation is to build a structure of relationships within universities so that all students learn (Barge, 1994). Koestenbaum (1991) encouraged leaders to develop a vision, keep in touch with reality, foster a sense of ethics, and develop the courage to take risks. These four skills, when applied to an educational institution, could be the keys for the success of future leaders in the educational enterprise. Unfortunately, these skills are rarely developed or practiced during an administrative graduate program.

The importance of professional practice to the function of society has been well documented. Schon (1987) reminds us that virtually all of society's business is conducted by professionals with specialized training to provide health care, operate businesses, adjudicate laws, manage cities, design and construct buildings, and teach students. We are faced with providing leaders who can orchestrate the talents of these professionals so that patients get well, goods are produced, people receive due process, and students learn. There are nagging questions about what kind of leadership is appropriate and whether that leadership is universal for all types of organizations.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) remind us that there are four competencies of leaders: management of meaning, of attention, of trust, and of self-management. To be a competent educational leader, an individual must be able to manage the meaning of university, which means they

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must have a clear understanding of the basic purposes of universities and be able to manage the organization toward fulfilling those purposes — the primary theme about which all activity must be organized. Leadership, in the general sense then, is necessarily constrained by the situations in which leadership is displayed (Bennis & Nanus). Over the past several years we have learned much about leadership in relation to organizational context and the variables that might affect a leader's effectiveness in various situations. Our understanding of these circumstances has been constrained by the prevailing view that leaders shape organizations, not that organizations shape leaders.

No research was found that focused on the perceived leadership abilities of academic affairs administrators or how the leadership abilities were learned or developed. There have been several studies completed, however, on the perceived leadership abilities and skills of various professionals involved in the educational enterprise.

Purpose

The primary design of this study was to identify the perceived leadership abilities of academic affairs administrators in colleges and universities in the Williams Midwest-Central Region of the National Association of Academic Affairs Administrators. The objectives included:

1. Identify the perceived leadership abilities of college and university academic affairs administrators.
2. Identify the perceived leadership needs of academic affairs administrators in colleges and universities.

Methods

The population for this study was all members of the Williams Midwest-Central Region of the National Association of Academic Affairs Administrators. The National Association of Academic Affairs Administrators (ACAFAD) is a professional organization that addresses the concerns of middle management administrators responsible for the development, administration and implementation of policies, programs and services at institutions of higher education. ACAFAD is part of the American College Personnel Association and identified as Commission XIV. The Williams Midwest- Central Region of ACAFAD includes Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wisconsin as well as the Canadian provence of Ontario.

Demographic data from Chapman's 1990 survey of ACAFAD members revealed that 53.4% of the members were male and 46.6% were female. Ninety-six percent of the members had received a graduate degree with 61% at the doctoral level. The public sector accounted for 56.5% of the respondents while 41.2% worked in the private sector. Over half, 58.6%, had 16 or more years of experience in higher education (as cited in Kujawa, 1991).

A list of academic affairs administrators who are members was obtained from the national treasurer. A total population of N = 121 was identified. Response rate was 73/121 or 60.3%.

Data were collected through a direct-mailed questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed by Luft (1986) and adapted by Swan and Kamrath (1993) using related literature and previous research. Assistance was obtained from a panel of experts including sociologists, teachers, and university staff. An analysis of the reliability of the instrument was determined to be $r = .94$ using Cronbach coefficient alpha at the .05 level.

All data were analyzed using StatView a statistical package designed for microcomputers. This statistical package was chosen because of its ability to analyze and present data in a single application. Appropriate descriptive statistical procedures, frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, ranks, and analysis of variance were used to analyze the data. Least Significant Difference (LSD) was employed to determine when significant differences among the various groupings on identified leadership abilities were identified. The alpha level was set at the .05 level for all tests.

Findings

The demographic data revealed that of those reporting, 39 (54.2%) were male and 33 (45.8%) were female. Marital status groups were not divided as evenly: 53 (73.6%) were married, 14 (19.4%) had never been married, and 5 (7%) were divorced. The total years of experience in higher education varied from 2 to 36 years, with a mean of 17.65 years and a standard deviation of 7.5 years. Years of experience in higher education revealed some interesting comparisons as shown in Table 1. The number of years in academic administration varied from 1 to 25 years, with a mean of 10.8 years and a standard deviation of 6 years. The highest degree earned by those responding was 23 (31.9%) with Master's, 2 (2.8%) Educational Specialist, and 47 (65.3%) Doctorate degrees (Ph.D. and Ed.D.).

Academic administrators believed there was a need for leadership development programs: 67 (93.1%) in favor and 5 (6.9%) opposed. They indicated that they would be willing to attend leadership development programs if they were available: 39 (54.2%) would attend, 25 (34.7%) would possibly attend, whereas 8 (11.1%) would not attend.

TABLE 1
Total Years Of Experience In Higher Education As Reported By Academic Affairs Administrators

Years Experience	Female	Male	Total
0 - 5 years	10	8	18
6 - 10 years	6	9	15
11 - 15 years	12	11	23
16 - 20 years	3	9	12
21 - 25 years	2	2	4

Research objectives of identifying the perceived leadership ability and identifying the perceived leadership needs of academic affairs administrators in colleges and universities in the United States were accomplished within the 40 item questionnaire. Table 2 reports the identified leadership abilities, rank ordered by means from most important to least important on a six point scale. Those mean scores above 5.50 were used to identify the strength leadership areas whereas those mean scores falling below 5.00 identified leadership areas of need. These numerical points were identified a priori as points of reference from which to draw conclusions.

The reported mean scores 5.50 and above identify areas where academic affairs administrators are identified as strong and capable leaders within the college or university structure. The five highest ranking leadership abilities were identified as "I view myself as a professional," "Other people can depend on me," "I understand that others have feelings, motives, goals," "I like to see conflicts resolved," and "I like to maintain good interpersonal relations."

The leadership need areas are those whose means fell below 5.00. Leadership need areas identified by academic affairs administrators were "Making friends/getting along with others is easy for me," "Each year brings me closer to my professional goal," "I am able to inspire people," "I am involved with community affairs," and "Belonging to organizations is important to me."

Significant differences in perceptions of leadership abilities and needs were not identified between or among any of the grouping variables. All grouping variables identified that those reporting were perceiving leadership abilities and needs in a similar fashion.

Conclusions

Overall, academic affairs administrators perceived their leadership abilities high to very high. They appeared to be looking at themselves and viewed their employment responsibilities in a very similar manner. Academic affairs admin- istrators should be perceived by faculty and students as valued leaders on their college and university campuses.

TABLE 2
Perceived Leadership Abilities Of Academic Affairs Administrators Ranked By Means

Question Number	Question Item	Mean	SD
34.	I view myself as a professional	5.84	.44
17.	Other people can depend on me	5.74	.47
15.	I understand that others have feelings, motives, goals	5.67	.55
20.	I like to see conflicts resolved	5.67	.53
39.	I like to maintain good interpersonal relations	5.66	.56
16.	I enjoy sharing information with others	5.62	.57
5.	I persevere on a project until it is completed	5.56	.62
38.	I can work persistently for a just cause	5.52	.63
40.	I feel I am proficient in my work	5.52	.67
4.	People look to me for advice	5.48	.63
9.	I willingly listen to others	5.48	.69
19.	I have a good sense of humor	5.44	.69
8.	I believe that my ideas are practical in nature	5.38	.64
13.	I can see both sides of an argument in question	5.38	.68
21.	I encourage others to become involved in various projects	5.38	.88
36.	I consider myself to be an achiever in life	5.37	.77
37.	I am enthused about my work	5.37	.70
23.	I am a cordial person	5.33	.65
12.	I enjoy success and strive for it	5.32	.68
6.	I consider myself to be a flexible person	5.30	.70
3.	Other people accept me as a leader	5.25	.64
7.	People seek guidance from me during difficult times	5.23	.66
27.	I am willing to take charge and lead a group	5.23	.72
14.	I am an effective decision maker	5.22	.71
10.	I feel at ease leading a group	5.19	.79
24.	I feel people respect and admire me for the person I am	5.19	.70
1.	I can motivate people	5.16	.62
26.	I enjoy expressing my ideas on given issues	5.14	.77
32.	It is easy for me to develop an interest in people	5.14	1.02
18.	I am original in my ideas and activities	5.10	.71
22.	I consider myself to be tactful	5.08	.81
25.	I feel confident about openly promoting issues	5.05	.83
28.	I am able to persuade others to respect my point of view	5.04	.73
33.	I enjoy meeting new people	5.01	.99
29.	Other people accept my ideas	5.00	.58
30.	Making friends/getting along with others is easy for me	4.99	.94
35.	Each year brings me closer to my professional goal	4.99	.86
2.	I am able to inspire people	4.97	.62
11.	I am involved with community affairs	4.48	1.11
31.	Belonging to organizations is important to me	4.38	1.17

Likert type scale was 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Moderately Agree, and 6 = Strongly Agree.

The identified leadership need areas are those where additional assistance should be provided through training or workshops. Some areas are related to interpersonal communication skills. Workshops would be an effective to work on specific communication skills. Several companies publish newsletters focused on tips to improve communication. Becoming more active or involved in the community could be addressed as a conference session, workshop, in newsletters, or other electronic media.

Recommendations

Additional studies should be conducted in the other regions of the United States to ascertain if all academic affairs administrators perceived themselves as strong leaders. Studies could be designed to examine the perceived leadership abilities of administrators at different types of postsecondary institutions, as well as to examine the perceived leadership abilities of different types of administrators.

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By Mary Ann Bowman

Benchmarks of Successful Faculty Development: A Call for Discussion

Do faculty developers know how to measure the success of their programs and practices? How do we evaluate for ourselves, and others, the effectiveness of our work? This article suggests that the faculty development profession needs to focus greater attention on evaluation and proposes some benchmarks to initiate discussion.

MANY FACULTY development professionals have noted that the literature of our profession contains little to guide us in evaluating the effectiveness of our programs. Most evaluation that occurs in faculty development occurs at the participant satisfaction level immediately following a program or workshop (Rubino, 1994). Evaluation is frequently an overlooked activity in organizations, partly because so many of us tend to view evaluation as a judgment of ourselves and what we do, rather than a process of information gathering to assist us in the refinement and enhancement of our work. Just as with student ratings of teaching, the evaluation process tends to be seen as summative (judging how well I do my job) rather than normative (helping me enhance my performance). The additional constraints of limited time, resources, and energy also contribute to the paucity of evaluation that occurs.

Nevertheless, as our profession evolves, it is my view that we need to develop more stringent and specific measures, benchmarks that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of any faculty development program, in any kind of higher education institution. Appropriate evaluation, of course, always depends upon multiple measures and should be tailored to the institution in question (Brinkerhoff et al., 1983, 1989). The benchmarks I propose here examine faculty development from several different perspectives. These ideas build upon the work of Katharine Munning Simon, Ph.D. (1993).

I see these benchmarks as only a starting point for evaluation because ideally, building in more specificity would not only provide the kind of quantification that higher administration tends to appreciate but would also provide us with useful information for improved practice. These are just a few examples: What percentage of an institutional budget would ideally be dedicated to faculty development? What about status issues—where should faculty development be in the organization chart? How many faculty should we be serving? Knowing more about the last issue by identifying what percentage of faculty need to be actively involved in faculty development

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activities for "success" would enable us to state with more confidence whether our programs and services are truly reaching the numbers they should for effectiveness in our organizations. Should we find that the number of faculty we are serving needs to be increased, this knowledge would enable us to focus attention on new approaches for attracting a larger number of clientele.

However, these kinds of measures may be seen by some as too limiting, and even too risky for programs that are already vulnerable in a time of budgetary constraint. Perhaps no quantitative measure can ever adequately demonstrate whether a faculty development program is succeeding or failing. Nevertheless, because it appears we will increasingly be expected to show accountability in our work, I believe these are issues that our profession needs to examine and discuss. The benchmarks provided here are intended to serve as a focal point to initiate such discussion.

The benchmarks I propose address five areas: the organization, the organization's leadership, the faculty developer, the individual faculty members, and the educational and academic resources of the organization.

The organization will have:

- A mission statement that includes faculty development.
- An organizational philosophy that emphasizes the continual improvement of faculty, staff, and learners.
- An explicitly-communicated belief in the continuing professional and personal growth of each individual.

The leadership of the organization will:

- Consistently communicate the importance of faculty development.
- Provide adequate status, funding, and resources to the faculty development program.
- Model active personal involvement in faculty development activities.
- Communicate clear expectations to faculty about job performance and provide faculty-development opportunities to ensure faculty success.
- Encourage faculty to enhance their teaching and professional skills.

The faculty developer(s) will:

- Regularly assess the needs and concerns of faculty.
- Provide programs and services responsive to faculty needs and concerns.
- Develop strong collaborative relationships with colleagues.
- Assist in the development of effective self-, peer, and student assessments that provide meaningful feedback on performance.
- Provide consultation in an atmosphere of confidentiality and trust.
- Regularly facilitate meetings where faculty engage in reflective discussion of teaching practice.
- Regularly evaluate programs and services and make appropriate changes and enhancements.
- Be actively involved in an ongoing program of professional development.
- Maintain active professional relationships with colleagues locally, regionally, nationally, and internationally.

Individual faculty members will:

- Feel "ownership" of faculty development planning and programs.
- Understand the need for continued growth, skill acquisition, and reflective practice.
- Be actively involved in faculty development activities.
- Demonstrate responsiveness to assessment feedback and take appropriate action to change, if necessary.
- Transfer learning from faculty development activities to classroom/clinical teaching situations.

- Enhance the learning of students as a result of participation in faculty development.
- Collaborate with other faculty by providing coaching/instruction, feedback, or coverage of colleagues' responsibilities during their training time.

Educational/academic resources will include:

- Protected time for academic activities, including faculty development.
- Financial support for faculty development activities.
- Access to professional literature and current technology.
- Mentoring or coaching system for new and mid-level faculty, with mentors receiving training.
- Adequate staff support.
- Resource sharing with local, regional, national, and international networks.

The Editor welcomes responses to this "think piece." Please send your responses to Dr. Karron G. Lewis, Editor.

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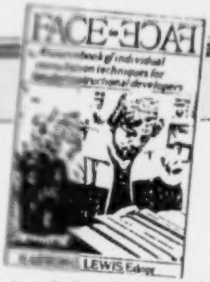
Mary Ann Bowman is Director of Faculty Development Services, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI 49008, 616/387-5305. Internet address: MaryAnn.Bowman@ wmich.edu



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By Donna M. Qualters

From Practitioner to Professor: A Reflective Vision

Professional school faculty, as in the area of Physical Therapist Assistant, are trained to practice not to teach. How can we help our best practitioners become our best faculty? Using Donald Schon's Reflective Practitioner, *this article describes a faculty development experiment designed to utilize practitioner strengths in an educational setting.*

TRULY EXCELLENT teaching goes beyond technique. The number of theories, philosophies, and program models available to develop teaching indicates there is no "recipe formula". However, recent research in higher education has demonstrated four interesting points. First, while the majority of higher education institutions offer some form of traditional faculty development, these programs do not have permanent status with reliable funding (NEA, 1989). Second, the professorate has little respect for pedagogy because the field lacks a direct connection to the subjects being taught and is often viewed as vague generalities (Edgerton, 1990). Third the value of practice is overlooked in current models (Brown & Elfenbein, 1991). Lastly, professional school faculty in particular are called upon to perform a function for which they have not been educated (Schon, 1983).

With this in mind, Endicott College, a small New England professional studies college, initiated a development program for its Physical Therapist Assistant (PTA) faculty in the Spring of 1994. It was hoped this program would provide the necessary curriculum and pedagogical skills; utilize professional and clinical expertise; tie pedagogy directly to the subject matter; and respect and develop individual strengths.

Background

The PTA faculty consisted of a Director, a Clinical Education Coordinator, both of whom teach, and two adjunct faculty who are practicing physical therapists. Their clinical experience was extensive, ranging from seven to twenty years, but none of them had ever held a faculty position. They were, however, not lacking in teaching experience. They had been guest lecturers at PT/PTA programs, given workshops to professional colleagues, presented at professional conferences, mentored PT/PTA students, and daily taught their patients. In a practical sense they had extensive prior knowledge and experience to draw on, yet each felt she was coming to teaching lacking any relevant experience. Donald Schon has shown that:

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> Competent practitioners usually know more than they say. They exhibit a kind of knowing in practice. Practitioners themselves often reveal a capacity for reflection on their intuitive knowing in the midst of action and sometimes use this capacity to cope with the unique, uncertain, and conflicted situations of practice." (Schon, viii-ix, 1983).

He calls this phenomenon "reflection-in-action", a model of inquiry "which acknowledges the practitioner's ability to learn from practical experience and translate that learning into both relevant and rigorous knowledge" (Brown & Elfenbein, 1991).

Schon feels that through practice, professionals develop an amazing amount of tacit knowledge that allows them to make professional judgments without really being able to articulate the theory or underlying assumptions that helped form the decision. Through the use of reflective practice techniques, practitioners can reflect not only on what they do but also examine or change the assumptions that underlie their behavior.

The challenge was to design a program which tapped into the skills the PTA faculty already possessed, and then create a framework to allow reflection in action to occur in a classroom setting as it does in a clinical setting.

Program Design

The program was designed to consist of the following components under my guidance as Dean of Instruction:

1. *Seminars:* Since teaching is an isolating experience rarely discussed among faculty (Schulman, 1993), a forum needed to be created to allow discussion to occur inter and intra departmentally. The PTA faculty needed to talk to each other about the connection between their clinical and educational experiences and skills. They also needed to connect with other faculty to establish a sense of a wider college community. In order to accomplish this for the four PTA faculty members, six seminars were designed to run over a six month period. Each seminar was similar in format. It lasted two hours; was facilitated by a team of myself and one other faculty/staff from a different academic department; commenced with exercises and activities that were designed to allow the educational theory to emerge from their own practices and experiences; provided hands-on concrete suggestions and practices; and lastly provided the theoretical framework from the literature. The faculty and I jointly decided upon the topics based on what they felt were their needs. The seminar topics that emerged were: (1) Philosophy of Education & Personal Learning Style, (2) Classroom Assessment, (3) Teaching Methodology, (4) Test Construction and Evaluation Techniques, (5) Syllabus Design and Use as a Teaching Tool, and (6) Media in the Classroom.

These seminars proved to be the most effective element of the program. The four faculty members who participated all rated them as the most beneficial. Not only did it allow them to network with other faculty and hear their colleagues talk about their successes and failures, but it also helped them feel more positive. In many instances these seminars pointed out that they were doing a lot of things right! In the session on test taking we discussed the types of questions the faculty already asked in each class and why they asked those questions in that form. After this exercise, I showed them Bloom's taxonomy and they were amazed how closely the way they already designed tests mirrored this taxonomy. Initial interviews with each faculty had shown that they all perceived themselves as excellent clinicians but only fair to good teachers. Discussion in these seminars helped them see that they were "good teachers".

An unexpected finding, however, was that the specific content of these seminars was not what seemed the most valuable to faculty. When asked what they learned from these seminars, they mentioned the connection between their educational philosophy and its application to their role as a PT and a teacher; awareness of their teaching style and how they make decisions; an awareness of different student learning styles; the establishment of a baseline of knowledge on which to draw; and the fact that these seminars provided them with reflective food for thought that help them make changes.

The most interesting finding was the close connection between their Physical Therapist skill of assessing patients and their teaching skill of assessing students. In the seminar on classroom assessment they found they were able to utilize assessment to adjust the classroom environment to increase student success in much the same way they assessed and adjusted therapy to increase a patient's success.

An additional surprise for me was the enthusiasm of faculty and staff from other departments when I asked them to participate as co-facilitators. In a time when faculty and staff are already overburdened, I was hesitant to ask "one more thing". Yet everyone I invited to participate not only felt honored to be asked, but thoroughly enjoyed the conversation and discussion. They in turn had a new awareness of what they do in class and why they do it.

2. *Individual Interviews:* Research is showing that development in pedagogy can be accomplished if faculty are shown methodology that reflects their own education philosophy, class goals, and role definitions; if expectations are clear; and if faculty understand the strengths and weaknesses of their own learning and teaching style (Ornstein, 1993; Katz & Henry, 1988). Each PTA faculty member engaged in an hour long interview with me prior to my class observations which helped to identify these areas. This also set the groundwork for establishing an informal dialogue between myself and the faculty as the semester progressed.

These interviews gave me an understanding of how they thought and functioned as PT's; what skills they already possessed; what was important to them to communicate in the classroom; what skills and talents they felt students needed in order to be PTAs; what their thoughts were on what constituted good teaching and how they viewed their role; and most importantly, what their motivation was for teaching. Armed with this knowledge, I was able to devise an effective approach to help each develop.

The faculty feeling on this part of the program also ties in very closely to Schon. When asked to evaluate this component of the design the faculty expressed the very qualities Schon feels practitioner possess, the "knowing-in-practice" of more knowledge and theory than they can articulate. The faculty often expressed that they were not sure they had told me all they were thinking and doing. The program this semester helped them understand the assumptions that they used to make teaching decisions and evaluate learning, and better express them in an educational framework. Finally, these interviews brought them all to a new awareness of their own learning and teaching style in a setting different from the clinical.

3. *Individual Classroom Observation:* Previous research has shown that development in teaching practices is likely to occur when they are personalized (Katz & Henry, 1988). Each faculty member agreed to be observed during the semester. As observer, I focused on their current teaching style, assessment skills, problem solving skills, and the interactiveness of the class. These observations were followed by individual con-

TABLE 1

		Mean (N=4)
1.	I feel more prepared to teach my class.	1.50
2.	I now have alternative teaching methods to utilize in class.	1.25
3.	I use classroom assessment techniques .	1.50
4.	I feel assessment techniques are useful.	1.25
5.	I understand the role of outcome assessment in planning my courses and class activities.	1.75
6.	I feel more connected with my department.	1.50
7.	I am more aware of colleagues outside my department.	1.75
8.	I feel comfortable in consulting colleagues about teaching issues.	1.75
9.	I better understand my role as teacher.	1.25
10.	I have changed or adapted my teaching style in some way over the past six months.	1.25

ferences with me in which teaching strengths were identified, alternative pedagogy explored and individual questions addressed. These conferences provided a forum to raise issues of reflective practice and to help faculty create a framework to bring these practices to a cognitive state which would lead to implementation. I then helped them to see the connection between clinical behaviors and classroom behaviors. When faculty asked how to handle a difficult student, I asked them to reflect on how they handled a difficult patient and then utilize that skill in the classroom. It is important to note that I have no knowledge of the PTA field, yet as facilitator I was able to help them make this connection to the classroom.

While the participants found the observations and follow-up conversations the most uncomfortable part of the program, it too proved to be an effective avenue to re-enforce the transfer of practitioner skills to teaching skills. The overall benefit for all of the faculty was summed up in the words "problem-solve". As practitioners they continually problem solve and discuss possible solutions with their colleagues during the course of their work as physical therapists, so too did the faculty find this component an effective way to help them problem solve classroom difficulties and solutions with a colleague in a similar manner.

Faculty Views

A faculty development program is only effective if faculty perceive some benefit from it and actually change their practice. Observations verified that approaches had been changed. The physical classroom setting was changed for all classes, faculty rearranged seating patterns to allow more student interaction; more interactive group work and less lecture was incorporated into lessons; every faculty member observed used new classroom assessment techniques; and more problem solving activities such as case study method were utilized in the class. A surprising result was a reevaluation of the sequencing of curriculum that was undertaken by the department based on the experiences from this program. But most importantly as table 1 shows, faculty members felt they were better prepared to teach, had alternative methods, felt more connected with their department and the college in general, better understood their role, and had changed or adapted their teaching style. In response to a question about what would they change, the answer from everyone was more and longer seminars!

Conclusions

Practitioners have much to offer to Professional Schools. Not only are they extremely knowledgeable about current trends in their fields, but with proper development the very skills they utilize in being successful in the field can be tapped to make them successful in the classroom. Higher education is often accused of living in an ivory tower. Teaching practitioners, who are excellent teachers, go a long way to disprove this image. They bring practical, applied, concrete experience to the classroom that students find interesting and motivating. Reflective practice techniques, organized around a well though out faculty development program, provide the framework for transferring practitioner skills to the classroom and producing more competent, more confident, better prepared, faculty.

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Donna M. Qualters is the Dean of Instruction at Endicott College, Beverly, Massachusetts.

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By Arthur L. Crawley

Senior Faculty and the End to Mandatory Retirement: Uncovering Age-bias in Academe

Maintaining senior faculty vitality and productivity are important institutional concerns that have been heightened by the recent congressional action eliminating the mandatory retirement age for tenured faculty. This study explores the views of coordinators and directors of faculty development programs and selected academic affairs administrators from research universities on controversial issues concerning a large and growing cohort of senior faculty who cannot be forced to retire.

CURRENTLY, HALF OF the full-time faculty at colleges and universities are (or soon will be) between the ages of 50 and 75. This cohort of senior faculty constitutes the largest such generational cohort in the history of American higher education (Rice & Finkelstein, 1993). Research universities have a distinctive experience in this regard. Their faculties are older and more tenured when compared to other higher education institutions. Moreover, approximately one-third of all senior faculty are at research universities (National Center for Educational Studies, 1990).

To compound the conundrum of a professorate growing older and more tenured at the senior ranks, as of January 1, 1994, colleges and universities will no loger be permitted to mandata the retirement of tenured faculty on the basis of age alone (Franke, 1993). The debate over how senior faculty will respond to the elimination of the mandatory retirement age when making their retirement decisions has been intense and controversial (Holden & Hansen, 1989; Lozier & Dooris, 1991; Rees & Smith, 1991; Hamilton & Morgan, 1991). The major concern has been that as retirement becomes a more personal decision, many tenured faculty members (or at least a significant minority) will continue working past age 70 and past their ability to perform their scholarly and teaching roles effectively (Bader, 1988). Furthermore, from an institutional perspective a large and growing cohort of senior faculty, who cannot be forced to retire, implies increased costs, reduced flexibility, an inability to bring in new people, diminished institutional quality, and the potential for reduced faculty morale (Caffarella, Armour, Fuhrmann, & Wergin, 1989).

Current research indicates that many of these concerns were, and remain, largely unjustified and may represent an undercurrent of age-bias in the academic workplace (Bader, 1988;

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Crawley, 1990). Moreover, the pattern of data from surveys conducted by Bader (1991), Kastenbaum and Schulte (1988; 1989), and Seltzer and Karnes (1988) suggests that among those who run our colleges and universities there has been undo emphasis on encouraging older faculty to take early retirement, accompanied by a prevailing assumption that older faculty perform less adequately, although little effort has been made to obtain or review data on the actual performance and potential of older faculty.

Chronister (1991) warns that as "large cohorts of senior faculty retire, some of our institutional memory and culture may be lost" (p. 25). Similarly, Finkelstein and Jemmott (1993) liken senior faculty to village elders of the past "having attained status and stature in their villages by virtue of their longevity, experience, and wisdom, played central roles in upholding traditions, socializing the young, and maintaining the culture of the village" (p. 95). With the growing body of evidence that there may well be a relationship between age- and career-related beliefs with respect to academic personnel decision making and participation in faculty development programs, it is important that the views of those who work closely with faculty in their personal and professional development be ascertained on this controversial subject.

The Research Study

Maintaining senior faculty vitality and productivity are important institutional concerns that have been heightened by the recent congressional action eliminating agebased, mandatory retirement of tenured faculty, often referred to as "uncapping." Within this context, and as part of a larger study to expand our knowledge of faculty development programs and policies at research universities and their implications for senior faculty career development and renewal, a questionnaire was developed titled the *National Survey on Senior Faculty Renewal* (see Crawley, 1994/1995).

In the third section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to share their views concerning controversial issues that have surfaced with respect to the end to mandatory retirement for tenured faculty. First, the respondents were asked if they (a) favored the retention of the current (i.e., prior to January 1, 1994) federal policy permitting mandatory retirement of tenured faculty at age 70, and (b) agreed to the belief that without a fixed retirement age many of their senior faculty would continue university employment past the time they should retire. The survey respondents were then given an opportunity to respond to the open question: What is the most important challenge facing your university given the elimination of the mandatory retirement age for tenured faculty?

The study was conducted during the Winter of 1992-93. The survey respondents were coordinators and directors of faculty and institutional development programs and selected academic affairs administrators representing each of the 104 research universities as classified by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1987). A total of 81 completed surveys were received from the population of research universities (N=104). The survey response rate was 77.9%. Of the 81 surveys returned, 80 (98.8%) of the returned surveys were satisfactorily completed.

Research Findings and Analysis

When survey respondents were asked, do you favor the retention of the current federal policy permitting mandatory retirement of tenured faculty at age 70, 38 (55.1%) of the 69 respondents to this question said no. When asked, do you believe that without a fixed retirement age, many senior faculty at your university will continue their retirement past the time they should retire?, 36 (50.7%) of the 71 survey respondents to this question said no.

Fifty-three (66.25%) of the 80 survey respondents chose to respond to the survey question: What is the most important challenge facing your university given the elimination of the mandatory retirement age for tenured faculty? In general their responses reflected their beliefs concerning the challenges facing their respective institutions, and the underlying concerns they had regarding the possible outcomes or consequences of eliminating the mandatory retirement age for tenured faculty on their campuses. These possible consequences were often expressed in terms of how uncapping would impact both institutional quality and individual performance.

What challenges were anticipated? Many survey respondents held a particularly pessimistic view of the challenges ahead to their university. Twenty-eight (52.8%) of the survey respondents included in their comments detrimental outcomes associated with uncapping. These comments primarily related to increased costs, inability to hire new faculty, and decreased faculty productivity. There were several respondents who expressed a linkage among all three. As expressed by one survey respondent, "[the institutional challenge is] the high salary of seniors and its effects on hiring junior faculty [and the] problem of separating [tenured faculty] for cause when age 70 faculty lose it and don't know it."

Approximately a fifth of the survey respondents were concerned about how their universities could assist in terminating the contracts of their older, tenured faculty through the use of early retirement incentive programs. As suggested by one respondent, the challenge ahead "[might well be] (s)tagnation, if there is little opportunity for faculty turnover. However, the university could create an incentive package which would persuade almost all faculty to retire from full-time positions between 65 and 70."

There were those few respondents who were concerned about creating a more balanced retirement policy within the current legal constraints that would provide opportunities for productive senior faculty to remain, while persuading less productive faculty to retire. As expressed by one respondent, "Provisions of strategies for maintaining continued faculty productivity [and] (s)trategies for encouraging retirement when productivity patterns warrant."

These responses serve as a bridge to those respondents, although still numbering but a few, who had a different mind-set about the consequences of eliminating the mandatory retirement age and, by extension, age-bias in the academic workplace. This group of four respondents offered the possibility of expanding the opportunities and options of senior faculty in positive efforts for self and institutional renewal. As one respondent remarked, "Refocusing, redefining, broadening definitions of productivity, scholarship. Finding faculty strengths at *any* age and supporting *that*; not forcing everyone into a single mold of success."

Another respondent in this group saw the challenge to his/her university as "creating more options for professional renewal across the career-span" as well as "changing attitudes toward 'older faculty'." A likeminded respondent wrote, "[the challenge is] keeping senior faculty vital and energized, establishing rapport between senior and new faculty, cherishing the talents and experience of senior faculty." And, as expressed by the remaining respondent in this group, "It comes down to the *real* issue: faculty productivity—at any age/stage of one's academic career. To focus on the post 65/70 cohorts is to miss the real point, and besides, [it] is based on a host of unproven, preconceived notions of older people/faculty."

A prevailing assumption among many of the survey respondents was that with the elimination of compulsory retirement, those senior faculty who continued to work past age 70 will necessarily block the recruitment and advancement of a younger and more diverse faculty thereby adversely affecting faculty turnover. The fact is that most faculty members now retire well before age 70 and currently less than two percent continue working past age 70 (Hammond & Morgan, 1991).

Rees and Smith (1991) cite some research evidence that at public research universities and private institutions a higher proportion of senior faculty may well chose to work past 70. However, even if such a scenario does develop, it would "only create a short-term delay in recruitment and promotion, given that virtually all faculty retire by 75 anyway" (AAUP, 1990, p. 53). Once these faculty retire, openings will be created at the same rate as before.

Several respondents cited an additional reason behind the need for faculty turnover as being particularly important to research universities: Faculty turnover is a necessary way of supporting new research areas and changing scholarly directions within adepartment or college. However, new positions do not necessarily require hiring younger or newly-minted PhDs. Some colleges and universities prefer to hire junior faculty, while others renew their faculty and enter new research areas by bringing in "senior faculty with the professional standing to confidently adopt and pursue new ideas" (Hammond & Morgan, 1991, p. 57).

Another major concern expressed by survey respondents had to do with the increased costs to research universities if a significant number of senior faculty continued to work beyond age 70. The Committee on Mandatory Retirement in Higher Education has projected a two to four percent increase in overall costs for faculty salaries during the next fifteen years as a result of eliminating mandatory retirement (Hammond & Morgan, 1991, p. 104). However, these projected costs are not overwhelming or that significant given the total costs involved in the higher education enterprise. They represent less than the average yearly increase in salary for faculty over the last five years as reported in the annual survey on the economic status of the academic profession (AAUP, 1993).

A more legitimate concern is that senior faculty salaries, as a whole, have not kept up with inflation and continue to lag considerably behind other comparable professional groups (Hexter, 1990). Many senior faculty are experiencing salary compression as negative economic pressures and lack of mobility have kept salaries from rising, while salaries for well-qualified, new hires in demand disciplines are increasing as universities begin to compete in a seller's market (Schuster, 1990).

Seven survey respondents indicated that there were no particular challenges to their university given the elimination of mandatory retirement for tenured faculty. Several of these respondents commented that their institutions had uncapped their retirement age sometime in the past, and as one respondent noted, "We have experienced none of the dire consequences predicted in so many national publications. In fact, our experience shows this to be a non-issue."

Recent research evidence does suggest that in those public colleges and universities which have already eliminated mandatory retirement there has been reported no significant impact on hiring, firing, retaining, or retiring faculty (Willner, 1990). However, given the broader context of age and career-related issues and the prevailing negative attitudes and assumptions regarding faculty productivity and aging there is a clear need for a critical discussion and review of the institutional policies and practices that affect the career development opportunities and retirement options available to senior faculty.

Changing Perspectives

Physical old age which once began as early as 55 or 60, now does not come for many until after age 75. This creates what Bronte (1987) calls "a new period in the middle of the life course" (p. 5) that expands the traditional middle years at least to age 75. Because most people between 50 and 75 years of age maintain a high level of health and physical functioning, Bronte (1987) believes that "many of the behavioral and social patterns once considered appropriate for those who were advancing in years simply no longer fit" (p. 5). Moreover, faculty have been shown, as a group, to be longer lived, healthier, and intellectually more active than the general population (Hansen & Holden, 1989). And, more importantly, the extensive research on aging and faculty productivity confirms that "faculty in their 70s can continue to perform well and that there are variations in performance among faculty at any age" (Hammond & Morgan, 1991, p. 105).

Consequently, the talk about retirement as a way of getting rid of older and less productive faculty reflects stereotypical assumptions about age and vitality, and may indicate an atmosphere of discrimination. Craver (1990) suggests that these assumptions make it difficult for older persons to obtain and retain academic appointments. Likewise, Baldwin (1984) expresses the concern that "senior faculty nearing the traditional retirement age are carelessly overlooked for future career development opportunities. The assumption being that they will not be interested or have too little time left in their career to justify the investment" (p. 51). Given recent reports of an increase in intergenerational hostility between younger and older faculty over changing expectations in terms of research productivity and rising tenure standards on many campuses (Massey, Wilger, & Colbeck, 1994), there is a definite need to ban, as Knelfelkamp (1990, p. 4) asserted, terms like "deadwood," "stagnant," "disengaged," "worn out," and "over the hill" from our conversations about professors.

While maintaining an appropriate mix of younger and older, women and minority faculty to achieve diversity goals is commendable, the denial of the freedom to pursue one's life work because of age is no less offensive than the denial of employment because of gender, race, sexual preference, handicap, or national origin. Each person must be judged on the basis of individual performance and potential.

Faculty developers and academic leaders with decision-making responsibilities need to bring a human resources perspective to the personal and professional needs and interests of senior faculty. A perspective, as advocated by Clark and Lewis (1988, p. 310), "which encourages reinvesting in senior faculty—many of whom will remain at their respective institutions for the rest of their careers." Who is to say that senior faculty cannot profit from career redirection and renewal through retraining or respecialization in new academic fields while remaining at their respective institutions?

It is difficult to say for sure if this new perspective exits with a majority of faculty developers and academic leaders who responded to this survey. What was surprising was the close to even split among those respondents who answered the two closed questions. A substantial minority of survey respondents would deny senior faculty, 70 years of age or older, the right to continued employment at their university. Just short of half of the survey respondents agreed with the statement that many of their senior faculty will continue their employment past the time they should retire.

Equally troubling was the finding that more than half of the respondents who answered the open question on the survey saw detrimental outcomes for their universities associated with the elimination of compulsory retirement. Many were concerned about how their universities could assist in terminating the contracts of their more senior faculty. The civil rights issue of the right to continued employment, regardless of one's chronological age, was seemingly all but ignored in their comments. Only four survey respondents indicated the possibility of expanding the career and retirement opportunities for senior faculty.

One would hope that faculty developers would welcome a perspective in which the stereotypic assumptions of a stagnant and costly senior faculty are replaced with a belief in the tremendous potential for growth of senior faculty and the positive influence they have on their professional communities and on their institutions (Claxton & Murrell, 1984). It is a perspective whereby senior faculty willing and able to continue performing their career-related responsibilities, and are encouraged to do so, with institutional assurances that it is the right thing to do.

Implications for Practice

Faculty developers working with faculty groups and academic administrators should be prepared to provide information and guidance on the changing developmental needs that shape senior faculty careers, plan ongoing strategies and programs to foster senior faculty productivity and vitality, and engage in the overall decision-making process as it pertains to expanding faculty career and retirement options. Moreover, they can help dispel myths and stereotypes on their campuses concerning the aging of faculty and its affect on faculty and institutional quality.

On a personal level, generational equity can be fostered by increasing contact and communication between older and younger faculty (Massey, et. al., 1994). Faculty developers can engage junior and senior faculty in a dialogue to discuss misconceptions each may have of the other, and how those misconceptions can affect their shared beliefs about the relative assets and liabilities of junior and senior—younger and older—faculty. Biased and stereotypical beliefs and negative attitudes diminish the humanity of both faculty groups, and, thereby, have the potential to negatively affect faculty morale and institutional effectiveness.

Senior faculty as repositors of the campus mores, values, and culture have a unique role to play in the socialization of the next generation of scholarly teachers (Finkelstein & Jemmott, 1993). The development of formal mentoring programs is important to achieving this goal. Research has shown that both parties in a mentoring relationship can benefit from the experience (Boice, 1992). Junior faculty are helped in arranging needed supports and resources which are beneficial in establishing the base for further academic career success. Many senior faculty have found the mentoring experience to be an important time for rethinking and redirecting their own careers while strengthening their sense of belonging and community.

On an institutional level, faculty developers can spear-head the development of a task force, or an advisory group, composed of senior and retired faculty who would make recommendations concerning the status of senior and retired faculty on their campuses. Working with other faculty and administrative groups, they can take the lead in changing social and educational policies, pension plans, and government regulations that impede flexibility in career and retirement options. Furthermore, advocated by Furniss (1981), faculty developers can promote much needed in-house workshops and seminars to sensitize faculty, department chairs, deans, and academic administrators to the prevalence of age-bias in the academic workplace, the legal ramifications of the Age Discrimination and Employment Act with regard to tenure and promotion decisions, and the rights of faculty in case of individual or collective age discrimination.

In conclusion, maintaining career options for senior faculty can only create serious problems for higher education if those who are making the decisions concerning faculty development policies and programs hold to the myth that the growing cohort of senior faculty is synonymous with a decline in abilities, creativity, and talents of its older faculty. Although the productive career life of any person has certain limits, a great deal of productivity resides in most senior faculty (El-Khawas, 1991). With large numbers of senior faculty nearing retirement, it is imperative that much of higher education reform its thinking about aging and retirement, and its effects on institutional and faculty vitality, if senior faculty are to receive the same consideration in terms of resources necessary to maintain and enhance their professional lives.

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Arthur (Art) L. Crawley, Ed.D., NCC is a Career and Educational Consultant in Athens, Georgia. He serves as a consultant to educational institutions and government agencies on educational reform, teaching initiatives, and staff development. In addition, as a professional counselor in private practice, Art specializes in counseling adults in life/career transitions.

Surviving the Nineties in Higher Education

The author suggests that the business of education parallels the business of the marketplace. The article outlines six ways to incorporate a consumer-orientated philosophy into the classroom to help higher institution survive and succeed in the nineties and students to "prosper."

By Linda E. Parry

In the eighties a revolution occurred across the United States. Reeling from a recession, inflation, and increased competition from overseas, corporate executives realized that they could no longer passively sit back and expect the profits to roll in. They had to take action, learn about their customers, and encourage productivity and quality throughout their organizations. Those organizations that took the lead, such as Procter and Gamble and Hewlett Packard, continue to be among the most successful companies in the country.

Now in the nineties, the academic community finds itself facing many of the problems of its corporate counterparts. Demographic shifts, federal and state budget cuts, and increased competition have forced many academic institutions to reevaluate their "ways of doing things." Many management approaches, such as Total Quality Management, are being tried throughout the system. Although each approach has its own variation, they all contain a central theme: academic institutions need to become more customer-oriented.

Consultants are quick to point out to us what at times appears blatantly obvious: "Know your customers. Be close to your customers, learn from them, and listen to them intently and regularly." To accomplish these goals, everyone must get into the act. It has to become a way of life. Institutions that excel in the nineties will be those institutions that are most successful in incorporating a consumer-orientated philosophy throughout their organizations.

So how can instructors turn philosophy into action? How can instructors know their customers, listen to them, and learn from them? My prior experience with undergraduate business students would lead me to distribute student surveys. However, those surveys are often unreliable, completed in the last five minutes of class, and filed away in the bottom of a desk drawer. Obviously, this hackneyed way of doing things will not suffice. Needing direction and feeling exasperated, I started looking into guidelines adopted by successful business companies. Below are some of the major tenants and my suggestions for applying them to our profession.

First, customers are not forgotten once the sale is made. Even car dealers know that keeping contact with their customers after the car has been purchased will lead to repeat sales and great word-of-mouth advertising. For teachers, that means finding ways to continue the communication begun in the classroom. This sounds impossible. After all, when students complete our classes, why would they want to continue the dialog? I would have agreed with this skeptical stance until last semester. Last semes-

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ter, on the day of the final, I asked students if they would like to be mentors to my next class. There was not "anything in it" for them except the opportunity to pass on information they had learned and to help their peers. I expected no volunteers. I received ten volunteers out of fifty students. This was particularly surprising since I teach graduating seniors, some of whom were willing to come back just to help their peers. Apparently, students want to keep in touch after the final is over.

Second, every customer is an individual. Our whole system is set up to orient us to "groups." We get class lists. We teach sections. Evaluations come back in the form of statistics. However, students are not statistics. We need to institute methods that address each student, one at a time, face-to-face. One way to get to know the students is to use name cards every class so that we can call the students by name. Another way is getting to class ten minutes early to converse with early arrivals. One semester I found that once the word spread that I got to class early, the number of early arrivals multiplied exponentially. Did this take out of my preparation time? Yes, but the feedback was worth it.

Third, giving good service should be a fanaticism. Education is a service. We do not sell widgets. If a student has a question, we should strive relentlessly to find an answer. Having a minimum number of office hours and being unavailable for questions give the immediate impression that we think students are an interruption or a nuisance. In the past, I felt pretty blameless on this count. After all, I always included "by appointment" on my syllabus. Recently, a student from Cornell told me that students often look upon that phrase as an implicit "do not disturb." Reflecting on her observation, I can see that making an appointment is just another hurdle for students to leap before they get the service they deserve. Perhaps the solution is more and not less. Four hours of office hours are twice as many as two and two hours are better than none.

Fourth, customer satisfaction should be measured on a monthly basis. Rather than wait for the "end of the quarter" student evaluation forms and surveys should be administered periodically throughout the quarter so there is a check on student perceptions. Regular testing allows us to adjust quickly to changes in the classroom. Moreover, the surveys do not always have to be written. Last semester, I had a member of Instructional Development Service conduct focus groups in my classes, Small Group Instructional Diagnosis. She initiated a dialog with the students, solicited their ideas, and summarized their observations. Not only did I gain some useful insights, but the students reported that they appreciated the fact that someone wanted their opinion. Apparently, they also distrust the validity of the student evaluation forms!

Fifth, there needs to be intensive faculty training. Many of our students are part of the "Sesame Street" generation. They are accustomed to having information delivered in a fast-paced, multiple approach style. They also have a variety of learning styles. Furthermore, we all get stale. It does not matter if we have been teaching six or sixty years. Faculty need to attend workshops and seminars to exchange ideas and get hands-on practice in taking alternative approaches to teaching and learning.

Finally, there has to be a strong sense of personal accountability. It is too easy to blame the bureaucracy when the system fails. Faculty need to commit to taking a service-orientated approach. Waiting for the lead to come from other sources is like waiting for a horse to win the race. It may not happen, but in the meantime, we can spend our time continuously retuning our own classes.

Is there any reward for faculty who take the time to adopt a service-orientated approach to teaching? Isn't it enough that we are expected to do research, teach, advise, stay professionally up-to-date, and perform service to the school without adding to the burden? Actually, the burden is lighter than it appears, and, paradoxically, buried in that burden are the benefits. Those organizations that have embraced a long-term view of customer service report more employee satisfaction and higher profits. They are also the successful survivors of the tumultuous eighties. It behooves instructors to take a proactive role in changing standard operating procedures and establishing systems to measure and reward customer service. Being customer-orientated is no longer a luxury but a mandate if academic institutions are going to successfully survive in the nineties.

Dr. Linda E. Parry is an Assistant Professor in Organizational Studies at the University of Minnesota, Duluth Campus. She teaches Strategic Management, Organization Theory, and Principles of Marketing, and is the School of Business and Economic's representative to UMD's Commission on Women. Before going to UMD, she was an analyst at Hartford National Bank, and taught at Russell Sage College in New York and at the State University of New York at Albany.

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How Can Student's Studying Be Made More Effective?

After an adequate period of time for studying, students should tutor their partner on the material contained in their reading assignment; during the next class session a challenging test covering the content of both readings should then be given to all. Discussion of students' personal reflections on the experience, and an analysis of the test data, should follow.

By Lynne Kuhn

Tutoring in higher education has long been used to facilitate students' learning; students often respond to individual assistance with increased interest and enhanced learning. In addition to benefiting the tutoree (i.e., the tutoring recipient), tutorial programs have also proven instructionally beneficial to tutors. In fact, some have speculated that the process of learning is different when a student learns with the active orientation created by the expectation of having to teach course material to another student than when a student passively studies to take a course exam over the same material. Benware and Deci (1984) conducted an empircal examination of this question; the findings are highlighted below.

Forty freshman enrolled in introductory psychology at the University of Rochester participated in this study; students were randomly assigned to two groups: 19 in the experimental group (i.e., students who were asked to learn in order to teach others) and 21 in the control group (i.e., students who were asked to learn in order to study for an exam).

Students were given a 25-page moderately difficult article to read and study; the topic was "brain functioning." They were asked to spend approximately three hours studying the article; students were told that the "three hours" was merely a guideline and to spend as much time as they wanted or needed (they were asked, however, to keep track of the time they spent). Two weeks later, students completed a short questionnaire that assessed intrinsic interest, and were then given a test covering information in the article.

To check on the effectiveness of the experimental instructions, students were asked two questions: (a) When a teacher assigns a particular reading to you such that he or she might examine you on it, how active or passive do you perceive yourself to be in dealing with your environment? (b) When a teacher assigns a particular reading to you such that you might teach the material to another student, how active or passive do you perceive yourself to be in dealing with your environment? Students rated the "learning in order to teach" instructions as significantly more active than they rated the "learning in order to be examined" instructions.

To assess intrinsic motivation, students answered three Likert scale items which examined (1) how interesting they found the contents of the reading material, (2) how injoyable they found the experiment, and (3) how much additional time they were willing to volunteer for

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the experiment. The results were clear and consistent: subjects who studied the article expecting to teach the material to others reported greater interest in the article, more enjoyment of the experiment, and expressed a greater willingness to participate further. The data confirm that students who learned with the expectation of teaching (i.e., a more active orientation) became more intrinsically motivated than students who learned with the expectation of taking a test over the content (i.e., a more passive orientation).

To assess learning, students completed a 24-item examination; question types included true/false, fill-in-the-blanks, definitions, multiple-choice items, identifications, and explanations. Questions measured either rote memory or conceptual understanding of the material; 50% of the point value of the exam was allotted to each. Results indicated that studying in order to teach produced significantly greater conceptual learning than studying to prepare for a test; a non-significant difference between the two groups was found for rote learning items. As indicated previously, students noted time spent studying the article; non-significant group differences in study time was reported.

These findings suggest that students who study material to teach the material to others express greater evidence of intrinsic motivation, report feeling more active in their learning, and demonstrate a greater conceptual understanding of the material than do those students who simply learn the material for a subsequent test. Benware and Deci cite an earlier study (Bargh and Schul, 1980) which reported that learning in order to teach produced significantly greater rote learning than learning in order to be tested.

Benware and Deci suggest that the increased intrinsic motivation for learning, and the improved conceptual learning, experienced by students in the experimental group was due to a perception of "being able to use information to act on one's environment." The authors conclude: "Given that the aim of most educators is to promote conceptual learning, educational climates and procedures that facilitate intrinsically motivated learning would seem to be of central importance."

One obvious application of these findings to classroom teaching is to inform students about this study and to discuss its implications for improved studying. Even greater instructional benefit would follow from a classroom demonstration of the experiment. For example, to help students experience the power of studying to teach others, student pairs can be formed; each partner might then be given a different article to read and study. As per the directions provided by Benware and Deci, students should be told that "The purpose of studying and learning the article is so that...you will be able to teach the contents to another student. The student to whom you teach the contents will then be given an examination based on the article. The examination will be like a typical examination based on a reading assignment." After an adequate period of time for studying, students should tutor their partner on the material contained in their reading assignment; during the next class session a challenging test covering the content of both readings should then be given to all. Discussion of students' personal reflections on the experience, and an analysis of the test data, should follow.

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INTRODUCING

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Engaging the Faculty in Information Technologies Training

While advances in technologies, including electronic mail, on-line library catalogs, and the Internet, have the potential to revolutionize academic life, one of the biggest challenges has been to get faculty to attend faculty development sessions. Trainers need to be sensitive to faculty anxiety about computers and present computers as tools, not ends in themselves. This article describes a successful faculty development initiative that offered instruction on demand, that was individualized, peer supported, and delivered on site in faculty offices.

LET'S BE HONEST ... one of the biggest challenges to faculty development is getting faculty to attend workshops and seminars offered by instructional specialists. Besides attracting the usual complaints about competing time commitments, lack of interest in topics, negative attitudes about the quality of sessions, and fear of or resistance to change, initiatives designed to educate faculty about advancing technologies suffer the additional disadvantage of computer phobia or technology avoidance among some faculty. This article describes a successful 1993-94 faculty development initiative to engage a critical mass of faculty in information technology training. We have distilled our experience into several principles, but first a look at the subject and its related challenges.

Advances in communication technologies for electronic mail, on-line library catalogs, the Internet, and interactive multimedia instruction have the potential to revolutionize academic life for professors as well as students. Formats and techniques for research and teaching and learning are being redefined; however, all but a few faculty who are "techies" are uninformed about and uninitiated into many of these exciting technologies. It was all too common on college campuses that hardware and software were purchased, but under-utilized because training was neglected. Someone with a budget thought the college or the department ought to have the technologies, but no one figured out how to integrate them into the fabric of faculty roles; therefore, the computers sat unused, collecting dust.

In addition, some faculty feel threatened by new technologies (Needham, 1986). Not only do new technologies upset the traditional power relationships in the learning process, with teachers relinquishing authority and students assuming more control over their own learning, but computer-illiterate faculty also feel

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less than competent around computers. According to Knowles (1986), feelings of incompetence lead to serious motivational problems for adult learners. Exposing one's incompetence in public is a disincentive for some faculty, thereby inhibiting their attendance at workshops and seminars on technologies. A vicious cycle is created by this avoidance of the unfamiliar and sometimes threatening technology; hence, new models of faculty development are needed.

Common sense and some research indicate that significant factors in the adoption of computers for instruction include the technology orientation of the faculty member's discipline, computer self-efficacy, and general attitude about computers (Hirschbuhl and Faseyitan, 1994). But all faculty, no matter their discipline, need to develop competency in new technologies.

In designing faculty development models for new technologies, adult learning theory can provide some valuable insights. According to Wlodkowski (1985), the goal of instructors of adults is not to make learning painless, but to make learning worthy of the discomfort it may require and to provide motivational influences, emotional and otherwise, that support and nurture people through the difficulties inherent to excellence in achievement (p.183). As much as possible, the content and procedures should connect with the concerns of the learners, and the social group with whom learners are associated during the learning experience is considered to be a key variable. Group cohesiveness can enhance learner motivation and performance, and efforts to create cohesiveness are worth our effort, skill, and strategy (p. 199). When we are considering faculty as the adult learners in question, and technologies as the curriculum to be delivered, it becomes even more important to consider these factors.

According to Paul (1994), faculty development about technologies should be sensitive to faculty fears of computers and present computers as tools, not ends in themselves. Faculty will be more motivated to learn what the technologies can do for them, what work they can make easier, faster, and more efficient, than learning about computer potential in the abstract. Faculty development sessions should be designed so that faculty will learn how to do something they can use immediately; this will capitalize on their intrinsic motivation. Sessions, which are voluntary and open to all faculty, should facilitate peer support.

The University of Hartford, an independent comprehensive institution with 325 full-time faculty, wishing to bring its faculty into the electronic information age, sought a new model for faculty development in technologies because traditional offerings were not attracting audiences. The introduction of this new model resulted in significant institutional change in just one year. First a little background...

The University had been building a wide area network for several years and reached a point in 1993 where most of the academic buildings were connected. The libraries have established an electronic 'card catalog' available over our network, as well as CD-ROMs, hytelnet, and CARL (the Colorado Association of Research Libraries). We created a local electronic information directory called HAWKNET that includes student data, course information, and information about events, clubs, etc. Also, unknown to everyone but the Internet gurus in Computer Services, our students were going wild for electronic communication. They were joining news groups (we subscribe to over 2,000 for their convenience) and writing electronic mail to their friends on campus and around the country. In addition, the administration installed an on-line main frame registration system that will provide advisors access to course registration information from their offices as of January 1995.

We were poised to shift our campus from paper to electronic data packets with a campus network backbone, resources in place that could be accessed over that network, student enthusiasm, and administrative plans to shift to online information. But we had two common problems—many faculty were not connected to the network and many who were connected were not using the technology.

Getting more faculty connected is the simpler problem because all it takes is money; training users is much the harder problem and the focus of this article. Earlier attempts at using computer labs to teach groups of faculty various software packages, including our mainframe e-mail software and the library's on-line services, met with failure when few faculty showed up. The almost universal unpopularity of group computer instruction suggested we had a problem with our design for these adult learners.

To complicate the issue further, we evolved a network over a number of years (rather than systematically creating one), so faculty were using a variety of personal computer (PC) platforms with either a terminal connection, a telephone modem connection, or a network connection. They have machines with as little as one megabyte of internal memory using the network, and local area networks (LAN) of every stripe. So the trainers had to know their way around a variety of technical problems including issues like keyboard emulator packages, printing from various configurations, uploading files from a wide range of word processing packages, and downloading files from a dumb terminal to a PC.

To accommodate the learning needs of the faculty and their different computers, keyboards, and software, we decided to train faculty in their work spaces on their own machines. Although training individuals or small groups is more expensive than large group training, the latter had been a spectacular failure. Plus, if trainees returned from our training sessions and could not figure out how to apply what they just learned to their own machine, all our instruction was wasted. So a model that brought training to the faculty users responded to both their learning needs and technical issues.

Next, we had the problem of who should do the training. We needed trainers who were technologically experienced (and fast learners), who understood faculty hesitancy, styles of learning, and need to know. The solution was to create a team of the three trainers, one from the faculty, and one each from Computer Services and the Library. Together they contributed expertise in e-mail, online library services, the Internet, and electronic pedagogy. They combined their expertise to develop and deliver a curriculum and approach that would empower faculty users no matter what their learning style or platform.

The curriculum was conceptualized for a pyramid of users: at its foundation, electronic mail; in the middle, on-line bibliographic resources; and at the top, the Internet. We provided e-mail training as the entry experience for as many faculty as we could reach, on-line library training for those who had mastered e-mail, and Internet training for those ready to navigate cyberspace. Interestingly, at our institution, and we suspect any institution beginning systematic training of its personnel, the calls for training come loudest from those with the most expertise. We decided to put entry-level training first and advanced training, despite the attraction of preaching to the converted, last.

We also abandoned any false hope that we could train everybody; clearly there are those, particularly some senior faculty members, who can and do choose not to embrace change. We hoped that we could produce a cultural shift at the institution if we built sufficient movement among critical constituencies, which we determined to be deans, their support staff, interested faculty, and those already using PCs. We began by asking the deans for data on who in their colleges had what sort of computer and/or connection, who they wanted connected, and which personnel they wanted trained first. The deans wanted themselves trained first; then we began to train critical faculty and staff.

We also had a pool of institutional money to pay for approximately fifty new connections, and we began using that money to connect those who had computers but no connections. Our assumption was that those already using PCs would use the connections and the training immediately; this assumption proved correct. Finally, we advertised our training in various in-house publications and we began to get requests for training from whole departments, many of whom had the technology available but had never learned to use it.

We believe that several principles can be abstracted from our experiences by others preparing to make the leap to electronic information transfer. First, *train users on their own equipment*. The PC revolution has created a different training audience than the main frame culture. Since PC users are accustomed to employing the software and command structures of their own machines, they resist learning in environments that do not duplicate their own. If an institution has a PC culture that uses standardized machines and network access, then 'home' training may not be necessary, but given the haphazard development of most PC cultures (we, for example, are just beginning to standardize our PC purchases), this situation is unlikely.

Next, *adopt a 'need-to-know' teaching philosophy*. Since our audiences came to the training with varying levels of experience, they often had pressing questions they wanted answered, which interrupted the expected flow of the curriculum. Stopping to answer such questions worked well because the session was occurring in the faculty learner's work space at his/her computer; the trainer could demonstrate the answer that worked on that particular equipment at the point when he/she asked the question. For example, printing resources are a common problem because they are often shared and specific to each operating system, so the trainers could demonstrate only the printing steps each user would need rather than lecture on the various printing configurations. Training on a 'need to know' basis means allowing the learner to interrupt the lesson and to obtain equipment-specific information.

Make learning worth the discomfort; *supply appropriate utilizations*. Technology training produces powerful learning responses, particularly among those who come to computers late. Those responses vary from the extremes of 'Why do I need to learn this?' to 'What else can you teach me?' Focusing the training on specific learner's needs is the incentive for attending the first session and for learning more about the technology.

Many learners, even those who volunteered for training, were suspicious of this new technology. They had not used it before and did not see why current technologies—phones and "snail mail"—were not good enough. Addressing these concerns is especially difficult for "techies" from the Computer Services Department who love computers. A faculty trainer has credibility with faculty and a level of sophistication that is closer to theirs. Some suspicious users were delighted to find out that they could correspond with their children living at a distance using e-mail on the Internet for free (everyone loves a bargain). For some faculty learners, providing addresses of professional user groups and helping them subscribe gave them an immediate purpose for using the technology. The trainers made a habit of e-mailing new trainees messages before they arrived for the training session and afterwards sending them messages that required (and helped facilitate) replies. These interaction strategies were critical to getting newly instructed users to employ the technology.

A fourth principle is: *adjust the training to the learner*. This is possible in individual or small group training in a way that it is not in large groups. In our case, since we were teaching an e-mail software package that is not menu driven, users had to learn some command language. The speed at which various audiences learned this language varied widely, depending on such obvious issues as previous experience and keyboard skills.

For example, we had one faculty member who had never typed and could not even enter his password before being timed out by the system. We created a password that clustered around several keys, and within a week he had advanced to creating his own mail distribution files. At the other extreme we had experienced secretaries who were reluctant to learn e-mail unless we could write down each step of the process for them to follow. In both cases we supplied what the learners needed—a "qwerty" password for our novice typist and a specific list of instructions for those made secure by it. Each left with his or her needs met and we had converted new users.

Finally, a word about bottom up revolutions—remember that *the human element matters*. In two semesters our three trainers trained approximately 150 faculty and staff. One of our trainers averaged 20 e-mail follow-ups per week, an indication that learners felt comfortable using the technology to learn more about how to apply it. Our trainers became the bridge between new users and the technology. Their one-hour tutorial became an extended and increasingly sophisticated conversation with learners (in part because they were good teachers and in part because that is exactly what the technology is designed to do). Such ongoing support of new learners of technologies is essential if a change in culture is to occur.

Our model offered instruction on-demand that was individualized, peer supported, and delivered on-site. Electronic mail empowered learners to seek answers to more sophisticated questions, and trainers, who taught on a need-to-know basis in tutorials generously seasoned with specific applications, created the sort of bond that encouraged further contact. And so a cultural shift at the University of Hartford is in process.

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Elizabeth A. McDaniel, Executive Provost for Academic Affairs at Nova Southeastern University since July 1995, wrote this article while at the University of Hartford. She has particular interest in the integration of technologies in new ways of teaching and learning.

Ed Klonoski, Assistant Professor of

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Rhetoric, Language, and Culture, is currently serving as Coordinator of Information and Instructional Technology Training and Director of the Advanced Educational Computing Project at the University of Hartford.

By Salma M. Al-Lamki

Perceived Needs for Faculty Orientation at Arab Gulf Universities: The Case of Sultan Qaboos University

The researcher reports results of a needs assessment survey administered to 215 faculty members at the Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in the Sultanate of Oman. The topics covered included faculty members' perceived need for orientation on SQU's academic and cultural setting, administrative and professional faculty affairs, faculty-student affairs, classroom instruction, and faculty personal affairs.

IN SPITE OF THE considerable interest in the orientation of new members into the teaching profession at the primary and secondary school levels and the associated literature on that topic, for example see (Brooks, 1987; Huling-Austin, 1990; and Odell, 1990) little interest has been shown in researching the orientation of new faculty members into higher education institutions until recently and there is limited literature on that topic (Dunkin, 1990). In the first years of an academic appointment, new faculty need to develop an understanding of the organizational structures and values, the expectations for performance and advancement, and the history and traditions of their new campus setting (Baldwin, 1979; Mathis, 1979). Subsequently, faculty must learn to balance complex and sometimes conflicting roles and responsibilities (Sorcinelli, 1986). The ability of new faculty to navigate these early years is critical to their success in and satisfaction with an academic career (Sorcinelli, 1988). Consequently, the willingness of administrative sources to gain an understanding and insight about these early years, and to provide the necessary support to new faculty, may be integral to the future success and viability of the institution (Turner & Boice, 1989).

Purpose of the Study

In the context of higher education in the Arab Gulf region, the Sultan Qaboos University and its neighboring Arab universities face similar problems of acute shortage of indigenous staff in both academic and administrative positions. Consequently, most have resorted to recruiting foreign staff to fill these positions (Massiallas & Jarrar, 1991).

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The researcher proposes to address the issue of faculty orientation as it applies to the first and only university in the Sultanate of Oman, formally established and inaugurated in September, 1986. The academic setting in this situation involves a diversified group of expatriate (foreign) faculty teaching predominantly Omani (Arab) students using English as the language and medium of instruction in four of the six SQU colleges. These four English medium colleges include: Science, Engineering, Agriculture and Medicine.

The Sultan Qaboos University has a student population of approximately 4,000 and a full time faculty population of approximately 318. Ninety-five percent (302) of the faculty population are foreigners recruited mainly from India, Egypt, Sudan, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.A. The remaining 5% (16) are Omani nationals. Omanies account for a very small percentage of the SQU faculty members, furthermore, the majority are inexperienced and are at the beginning rank of lecturers. The deans of all six colleges at the SQU are foreigners, four are from North America and Britain, and the remaining two are from Egypt.

In the context of the SQU, and under the prevailing conditions of an acute shortage of qualified and experienced Omani nationals to staff adequately the university, the presence of a large population of expatriate (foreign) faculty who are accustomed to different academic and cultural settings coupled by the lack of a formal SQU faculty orientation program has created a growing concern, acknowledged by the SQU administrators to research faculty orientation needs at the SQU.

The purpose of this study was to determine faculty members' perceived needs for faculty orientation at the Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in the Sultanate of Oman. Two primary questions were surveyed in this study: (1) What portion of the surveyed faculty member respondents believe that there is a need for a faculty orientation program at the SQU? (2) Among the possible faculty orientation items suggested in the survey, which ones are perceived to be the most important for faculty orientation at the SQU?

Methods

A questionnaire composed of a section with questions on biographical, professional, and employment data, followed by a section with a 30-item faculty orientation needs assessment survey was constructed for the purpose of this study. The 30-items have been categorized into five major orientation topics. These include: SQU's Academic and Cultural Setting, Administrative and Professional Faculty Affairs, Faculty-Student Affairs, Classroom Instruction, and Faculty Personal Affairs. The needs assessment survey was designed on a likert scale so as to allow respondents to rate the relative importance of each item as a perceived need for faculty orientation. To generate response to question two on this section of the survey, faculty member respondents were asked to indicate whether or not (yes or no) each respective orientation item was made available to them; and to rate the relative importance of each item as a faculty orientation "need" on a five-point scale: A = Definitely Important (5); B = Important (4); C = Neutral (3); D = Not Important (2); and E = Definitely Not Important (1). In order to determine the degree of importance of a particular item, the A and B responses were combined. Pennington (1980), in his article on needs assessment, asserts that it is the all important first step in program development that bridges between recognizing a need and deciding what to do about it. Brackaus (1984) concluded the following: "needs assessment is too important to ignore or mismanage in practice" (p. 238). Engleberg (1991) explains that needs assessment is more than gathering information; "its purpose is to assess that information and decide what should be done based on the careful consideration of needs as perceived by faculty members" (p. 216).

The questionnaire method of gathering data was chosen because of the advantages it provides in terms of economy, time, mass distribution, and question structure (Fink & Kosecoff, 1985). The needs assessment questionnaire contained primarily closed-form items on a likert scale to improve the reliability and consistency of the data; and to facilitate the tabulation and analysis of the data (Ryan, 1987). The instrument is found in its entirety in Appendix A.

Subjects

Subjects of this study consisted of all faculty members teaching in the four science-related colleges of Agriculture, Engineering, Medicine, and Science at the Sultan Qaboos University. The colleges were selected on the basis of their large population of foreign faculty members. The entire population of 215 faculty members in these colleges were surveyed.

Data Analysis Procedures

The researcher utilized descriptive and analytical statistical procedures to describe and summarize the characteristics of the data collected. This included measure of central tendency, measure of variability, and frequency distribution. Responses to each individual orientation item on the needs assessment survey was analyzed and summarized to describe the importance of each item as a Perceived need for faculty orientation. This was assessed by calculating the mean (average) score and standard deviation for each orientation item. Means were also calculated for each individual orientation category separately as a basis for comparison.

Findings of the Study

Of the 215 questionnaires distributed, 141 usable questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 65.58%. The distribution of faculty member respondents by nationality is highly diversified with a total of 23 recorded nationalities. These nationalities are categorized under the Middle East, Asia, Africa, America, Europe, and Australia. The Middle East includes nationalities from the Sultanate of Oman, Egypt, Jordan, Tunis, Algeria, Turkey, and Sudan. Asia includes nationalities from India and Pakistan. Africa includes nationalities from Ghana, Nigeria, and Tanzania. America includes nationalities from the U.S.A., Canada, and Colombia. Europe includes nationalities from the U.K., Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Slovenia. The largest number of respondents 38 (27%) were from the Middle East of which only 5 of the respondents were Omanies, followed by Asia 35 (25%), Europe 33 (23%), America 17 (12%), and Africa and Australia 3 (2%) each, respectively. Twelve (9%) of the faculty member respondents did not respond to this question on the questionnaire.

Analysis of Perceived Needs for Faculty Orientation at SQU

Faculty members' response to survey question 1 showed that all (100%) faculty member respondents reported that the Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) did not have a formal faculty orientation program, and 87% confirmed a need for a formal faculty orientation program at SQU. The analysis of data produced by

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the need assessment survey in response to survey question 2 on the relative importance of each of the 30 orientation items categorized under the five major orientation topics is shown in Tables 1 to 5.

Faculty Member Respondents Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Academic and Cultural Setting: The distribution of faculty members' response to whether or not orientation items 1 through 6 was made available to them, and the relative importance of each orientation item along with computed mean scores for each item pertaining to SQU's academic and cultural setting is shown in Table 1.

When assessing faculty members' response to availability of orientation items 1 to 6, the highest rate confirming nonavailability of item orientation was 87% for Item 3, followed by 85% for Item 5, 77% for Item 2, 69% for Item 6, 68% for Item 1, and 52% for Item 4. Alternatively, those who confirmed availability of item orientation indicated by relatively lower percentage rates of 32% for Item 1, 23% for Item 2, 13% for Item 3, 47% for Item 4, 15% for Item 5, and 30% for Item 6, reported that the information was made available to them through informal sources.

When the A and B responses were combined to determine the relative importance of each orientation item, it was found that the highest rated need for this orientation category was for Item 1 (95%), followed by Item 4 (94%), Item 2 (92%), Item 3 (84%), Item 5 (78%), and Item 6 (74%).

Table 1 reveals that the computed mean scores for each orientation Items 1 to 6, together with the weighted overall mean score of the orientation category on SQU's academic and cultural setting, recorded values greater than 4 on a 5-point scale. These recorded mean scores fall between Important (B) and Definitely Important (A), giving these items a high Perceived need for faculty orientation. This was the second highest recorded weighted mean score (4.33) among the surveyed five orientation topics.

Faculty Member Respondents Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Administrative and Professional Faculty Affairs: Orientation items on SQU's administrative and professional faculty affairs were considered important by faculty member respondents. Table 2 summarizes faculty members' response to whether or not orientation items 7 to 12 were made available to them along with the relative importance and computed mean score of each item.

The majority of faculty member respondents reported that orientation Item 7 through 12 was not made available to them. This is shown by 74% for Item 7, 90% for Item 8, 79% for Item 9, 51% for Item 10, 77% for Item 11, and 51% for Item 12. Those who confirmed availability of item orientation are 26% for Item 7, 10% for Item 8, 20% for Item 9, 48% for Item 10, 23% for Item 11, and 49% for Item 12. Accordingly, the source of information has been reported to be The combination of the A and B responses on the relative importance of each item indicated that the highest recorded item for this orientation category was for Item 11 (99%), followed by Item 10 (95%), Item 12 (92%), Item 7 (91%), Item 9 (89%), and Item 8 (85%).

The computed mean scores for all responses to individual orientation items together with the weighted overall mean score recorded values greater than 4 on a 5-point scale placing the mean values between Important (4) and Definitely Important (5) rating. This is indicative of a high need for orientation on SQU's administrative and professional faculty affairs. This orientation category represented the highest weighted mean score of 4.48.

Table 1

Faculty Member Respondents' Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Academic and Cultural Setting (N = 141)

ORIENTATION ITEM	YES		NO		A		B		C		D		E		M	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	(N=141)	
ITEM 1	45	31.9	96	68.1	105	74.5	29	20.5	7	5					4.69	0.55
ITEM 2	33	23.4	108	76.6	79	56	51	36.2	10	7.1	1	0.7			4.47	0.66
ITEM 3	18	12.8	123	87.2	56	39.7	62	44	19	13.5	4	2.8			4.20	0.77
ITEM 4	67	47.5	74	52.5	102	72.3	31	22	5	3.5	2	1.4	1	0.7	4.63	0.68
ITEM 5	21	14.9	120	85.1	44	31.2	66	46.8	22	15.6	9	6.4			4.02	0.85
ITEM 6	43	30.5	98	69.5	48	34	57	40.4	27	19.1	8	5.7	1	0.7	4.01	0.91
OVERALL MEAN															4.33	

Note: Degree of importance together with the mean & standard deviation are derived from a five - point scale:
A = Definitely Important (5 ; B = Important (4)
C = Neutral (3); D = Not Important (2) ; E = Definitely Not Important (1)

ITEM 1 = Information on SQU's educational goals and programs
ITEM 2 = Information on SQU's organizational structure and governance
ITEM 3 = Information on SQU's organizational culture
ITEM 4 = Information on SQU's credit unit system
ITEM 5 = Introduction to SQU's university administrators
ITEM 6 = Tour of SQU's campus, colleges & departments

Table 2

Faculty Member Respondents' Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Administrative and professional Faculty Affairs (N

ORIENTATION ITEM	YES		NO		A		B		C		D		E		M (N=141)	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
ITEM 7	37	26.2	104	73.8	96	68.1	33	23.4	10	7.1			2	1.4	4.56	0.74
ITEM 8	14	9.9	127	90.1	68	48.2	52	36.9	18	12.8	1	0.7	2	1.4	4.29	0.82
ITEM 9	29	20.6	112	79.4	61	43.3	64	45.4	14	9.9			2	1.4	4.29	0.76
ITEM 10	68	48.2	73	51.8	90	63.8	44	31.2	7	5					4.58	0.58
ITEM 11	32	22.7	109	77.3	105	74.5	34	24.1	2	1.4					4.73	0.47
ITEM 12	69	48.9	72	51.1	74	52.5	56	39.7	9	6.4	2	1.4			4.43	0.67
OVERALL MEAN															4.48	

Note: Degree of importance together with the mean & standard deviation are derived from a five - point scale:
A = Definitely Important (5 ; B = Important (4)
C = Neutral (3); D = Not Important (2) ; E = Definitely Not Important (1)

ITEM 7 = Information on SQU's policies and guidelines for promotion
ITEM 8 = Information on SQU's evaluation criteria for classroom instruction
ITEM 9 = Information on SQU's procedure in ordering instructional supplies
ITEM 10 = Information on SQU's academic grading system
ITEM 11 = Information on SQU's research facilities
ITEM 12 = Information on SQU's secretarial support services

Table 3

Faculty Member Respondents' Need Perception for Orientation on SQU 's Faculty - Student Affairs (N = 141)

ORIENTATION ITEM	YES		NO		A		B		C		D		E		M	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	(N=141)	
ITEM 13	32	22.7	109	77.3	55	39	65	46.1	19	13.5	1	0.7	1	0.7	4.21	0.05
ITEM 14	10	7.1	131	92.9	56	39.7	59	41.8	21	14.9	5	3.5			4.17	0.81
ITEM 15	20	14.2	121	85.8	76	53.9	52	36.9	13	9.2					4.44	0.65
ITEM 16	49	34.8	92	65.2	66	46.8	59	41.8	15	10.6	1	0.7			4.34	0.69
ITEM 17	24	17	117	83	55	39	58	41.1	26	18.4	2	1.4			4.17	0.77
ITEM 18	18	12.8	123	87.2	47	33.3	60	42.6	23	16.3	9	6.4	2	1.4	4	0.94
OVERALL MEAN															4.22	

Note: Degree of importance together with the mean & standard deviation are derived from a five - point scale:
A = Definitely Important (5 ; B = Important (4)
C = Neutral (3); D = Not Important (2) ; E = Definitely Not Important (1)

ITEM 13 = Information on SQU's types of students enrolled
ITEM 14 = Information on SQU's students' academic ability
ITEM 15 = Information on SQU's educational background
ITEM 16 = Information on SQU's academic counseling and guidance
ITEM 17 = Information on SQUs' student - faculty relationship
ITEM 18 = Information on SQUs' students' conduct and mannerism

Table 4

Faculty Member Respondents' Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Classroom Instruction (N = 141)

ORIENTATION ITEM	YES		NO		A		B		C		D		E		M	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	(N=141)	
ITEM 19	14	9.9	127	90.1	39	27.7	49	34.8	48	34	5	3.5			3.86	0.86
ITEM 20	40	28.4	101	71.6	30	21.3	47	33.3	48	34	12	8.5	4	2.8	3.61	1
ITEM 21	18	12.8	123	87.2	51	36.2	59	41.8	25	17.7	6	4.3			4.09	0.83
ITEM 22	74	52.5	67	47.5	73	51.8	60	42.6	5	3.5	3	2.1			4.43	0.66
ITEM 23	40	28.4	101	71.6	54	38.3	61	43.3	19	13.5	3	2.1	4	2.8	4.12	0.92
ITEM 24	41	29.1	100	70.9	68	48.2	61	43.3	9	6.4	2	1.4	1	0.7	4.36	0.73
OVERALL MEAN															4.07	

Note. Degree of importance together with the mean & standard deviation are derived from a five - point scale:
A = Definitely Important (5 ; B = Important (4)
C = Neutral (3); D = Not Important (2) ; E = Definitely Not Important (1)

ITEM 19 = Information on SQU's cross-cultural teaching
ITEM 20 = Information on SQU's physical setting of classroom
ITEM 21 = Information on SQU's teaching - learning styles for Omani students
ITEM 22 = Information on SQU's instructional facilities such as library, audi-visual aids
ITEM 23 = Information on SQUs' testing procedures and availability of test information
ITEM 24 = Information on SQUs' disciplinary procedures for students

Table 5

Faculty Member Respondents' Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Faculty Personal Affairs (N = 141)

ORIENTATION ITEM	YES		NO		A		B		C		D		E		M	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	(N=141)	
ITEM 25	60	42.6	81	57.4	62	44	57	40.4	16	11.3	6	4.3			4.24	0.81
ITEM 26	48	34	93	66	55	39	48	34	30	21.3	6	4.3	2	1.4	4.04	0.95
ITEM 27	83	58.9	58	41.1	74	52.5	55	39	12	8.5					4.43	0.64
ITEM 28	34	24.1	107	75.9	63	44.7	55	39	19	13.5	3	2.1	1	0.7	4.24	0.82
ITEM 29	32	22.7	109	77.3	42	29.8	53	37.6	36	25.5	9	6.4	1	0.7	3.89	0.93
ITEM 30	32	22.7	109	77.3	54	38.3	61	43.3	20	14.2	4	2.8	2	1.4	4.14	0.93
OVERALL MEAN															4.16	

Note: Degree of importance together with the mean & standard deviation are derived from a five - point scale:
A = Definitely Important (5 ; B = Important (4)
C = Neutral (3); D = Not Important (2) ; E = Definitely Not Important (1)

ITEM 25 = Information on SQU's community life
ITEM 26 = Information on SQU's campus life
ITEM 27 = Information on SQU's housing
ITEM 28 = Information on public and private schools in the country
ITEM 29 = Information on recreational facilities on and off campus
ITEM 30 = Information on culture, religion and people on Oman

Faculty Member Respondents Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Faculty-Student Affairs: Likewise, this category of orientation on SQU's faculty-student affairs has been rated to be important by participating faculty members. Summary of faculty members' response on the relative importance of orientation Items 13 to 18, along with computed mean scores of each item is shown in Table 3.

Similar to the two previous orientation categories, the majority of respondents reported that the orientation items were *not* made available to them; only 22% for Item 13, 7% for Item 14, 14% for Item 15, 35% for Item 16, 17% for Item 17, and 13% for Item 18 of the faculty member respondent, indicated that they had received respective item orientation. The rest, 77% for Item 13, 93% for Item 14, 86% for Item 15, 65% for Item 16, 83% for Item 17, and 87% for Item 18, of the faculty member respondents reported lack of respective item orientation.

To ascertain the relative importance of each orientation item pertaining to this orientation category, the Definitely Important (A) and Important (B) responses were combined. This resulted into the following rates with a high of 91% for Item 15, followed by Item 16 (89%), Item 13 (85%), Item 14 (81%), Item 17 (80%), and Item 18 (76%).

Mean scores of each orientation items together with the weighted mean score of this orientation category recorded values greater than 4.00 on a 5-point scale. This translates to a high need for this orientation category since the mean values falls between Important (4) and Definitely Important (5) rating. The weighted mean (4.22) of this orientation category ranked third among the surveyed five orientation categories.

Faculty Member Respondents Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Classroom Instruction: This orientation category had also elicited a relatively strong response from the faculty member respondents. Table 4 depicts faculty members' response on the relative importance of each orientation Items 19 to 24 together with computed mean score of each item.

The response column on whether or not orientation items were made available to faculty member respondents indicated that a large number of respondents had *not* received item orientation. This is evidenced by 90% for Item 19, 72% for Item 20, 87% for Item 21, 47% for Item 22, 72% for Item 23, and 71% for Item 24. The remaining respondents, 10% for Item 19, 28% for Item 20, 12% for Item 21, 52% for Item 22, 28% for Item 23, and 29% for Item 24, reported having received the information through informal sources.

When the Definitely Important (A) and Important (B) responses for each orientation item was combined, it was revealed that the highest rated Item was 22 (94%), followed by Item 24 (91%), Item 23 (82%), Item 21 (78%), Item 19 (62%), and Item 20 (55%).

When the mean scores were observed for each orientation item, it was found out that unlike other orientation categories, the mean values of two orientation items, 19 and 20, recorded values (3.86 and 3.61) below the benchmark mean value of 4.00. However, this has been compensated by higher mean values of the remaining orientation Items 21 through 24 resulting in a weighted mean value greater than 4.00 for this orientation category. Consequently, this places the orientation category on SQU's classroom instruction between Important (4) and Definitely Important (5) response bracket. This orientation category recorded the lowest weighted mean score (4.07) among the five surveyed orientation categories.

Faculty Member Respondents Need Perception for Orientation on SQU's Faculty Personal Affairs: Similar to all other four orientation categories, this fifth, and final surveyed orientation category had also elicited important response from faculty member respondents. The distribution of faculty members' response on individual orientation Items 25 to 30 together with computed mean score of each item is shown in Table 5.

Likewise, a great number of faculty member respondents reported unavailability of item orientation. This is indicated by (no) response of 57% on Item 25, 66% on Item 26, 41% on Item 27, 76% on Item 28, and 77% on both Items 29 and 30. Alternatively, the remaining respondents reported (yes) on Item 25 (42%), Item 26 (34%), Item 27 (59%), Item 28 (24%), and Items 29 and 30, both (23%). The source of information had been reported to be informal.

To determine the relative importance of each orientation item, the Definitely Important (A) and Important (B) response for each item was combined. This revealed a highest recorded rate of 91% for Item 27, followed by 84% on each Items 25 and 28, respectively, 82% on Item 30, 73% on Item 26, and 67% on Item 29.

The computed mean score for each orientation item, 25 through 30, together with the weighted mean score, recorded values greater than 4.00, with the exception of Item 29, which recorded a mean score of (3.89). These recorded mean scores are indicative of a high Perceived need for orientation since they fall between the Important (4) and Definitely Important (5) rating. The weighted mean score (4.16) of this orientation category ranked fourth among the five surveyed orientation categories.

Composite Mean Values of the Five orientation Categories: The distribution of composite mean scores for each of the five orientation categories (topics) is shown in Table 6. The highest computed mean score is 4.48 for orientation category on SQU's Administrative and Professional Faculty Affairs. This is followed by 4.33 on SQU's Academic and Cultural Setting, 4.22 on SQU's Faculty-Student Affairs, 4.16 on SQU's Faculty-Personal Affairs, and 4.07 on SQU's Classroom Instruction. The computed mean values of all five orientation categories recorded values greater than 4 on a 5-point scale. Consequently, this places the mean values between Important = (4) and

Definitely Important = (5) response bracket, thus confirming a high Perceived need by faculty member respondents for all five orientation categories.

Implications for Administrators

The findings of this study clearly indicates a need for a faculty orientation program for the Sultan Qaboos University (SQU). These findings have been supported by the literature on faculty orientation which calls for assistance and support from university administrators to initiate programs that can enhance the transition and address the need and concerns of newly recruited faculty members. Integral to this, is the core information necessary for orientation programs in academic institutions. This includes opportunities to discuss the objectives, philosophy, and style of the institution. For example, what makes it different from other higher academic institutions? This requires substantial input on the characteristics of students and the various demands placed on new faculty as they relate to the members of their department, the division, and the administration.

Since no significant differences was found between the different nationalities of faculty members categorized under

Eastern and Western faculty member respondents regarding their perceived needs for faculty orientation, one common campus-wide orientation program is recommended for all newly recruited SQU faculty members. The overall goal of this program is to assist faculty members attain an identification with the existing mission and practices of the SQU and with the profession that they practice within the context of the SQU. The contents of the orientation program will include all proposed 30 orientation items categorized under the five major orientation categories. These include:

1. Orientation on SQU's academic and cultural setting
2. Orientation on SQU's administrative and professional faculty affairs
3. Orientation on SQU's faculty-student affairs
4. Orientation on SQU's classroom instruction
5. Orientation on SQU's faculty personal affairs

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher proposed to the university administrators to set up a New Faculty Orientation Committee (NFOC) chaired by the Dean of Faculty Affairs or the Director of Human Resources and whose membership should include the Dean of Academic Affairs, the Dean of Student Affairs, the Registrar, and the Academic Deans of the six colleges of the SQU. The NFOC should utilize the findings of this study in setting up a New Faculty Orientation Program to be implemented at the Sultan Qaboos University.

Although this study was limited and confined to the faculty member population at the Sultan Qaboos University in the Sultanate of Oman, the findings could be generalized to the neighboring universities in the Arab Gulf region due to the similarities of the academic and cultural environment together with the academic staff background. The challenges faced by colleges and universities today require professors dedicated to excelling as teachers, scholars, and mentors. Hageseth and Atkins (1988) have cautioned that "... such individuals soon may become an endangered species" (p. 109). The faculty is the epicenter of the academic institution, it is the faculty who carry out the essential work of the institution and who most directly effect the lives of students and the status of academia, therefore, assessing faculty quality of life becomes a key issue for faculty developers and other university administrators.

Study of new faculty has provided, and will continue to provide a wealth of information on the satisfactions and concerns of new faculty at our institutions. Based on this research, I would strongly suggest that institutions of higher learning should consider conducting studies of faculty experiences on their campuses. Seeking out and identifying the needs

Table 6
Composite Mean Values of the Five Orientation Categories

Orientation Categories	Mean
1. Academic and Cultural Setting.	4.33
2. Administrative and Professional Faculty Affairs.	4.48
3. Faculty-Student Affairs.	4.22
4. Classroom Instruction.	4.07
5. Faculty Personal Affairs.	4.16
Overall Mean	4.25

Note: Means and standard deviations derived from five-point scale: Definitely Important (A) = 5; Important (B) = 4; Neutral (C) = 3; Not Important (D) = 2; and Definitely Not Important (E) = 1.

and concerns of faculty members can have a number of long-term payoffs. Such studies also can heighten awareness of and appreciation for faculty orientation programs. In addition, it is easier to propose, argue for, and sustain programs when there are grounded in faculty experiences and suggestions for improvements. Finally, such studies provide university administrators with new insights about, and help them to create ties with their faculty colleagues.

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Dr. Salma M. Al-Lamki teaches in the College of Commerce and Economics, Sultan Qaboos University, Sultanate of Oman.

Appendix A
Survey Instrument

Needs Assessment Survey For Faculty Orientation at the Sultan Qaboos University

This survey is designed to gather information for the purpose of planning and designing a faculty orientation program for the Sultan Qaboos University (SQU). The results will be analyzed and summarized to develop the framework and design criteria for an orientation program that would best meet the needs and concerns of the faculty members at the SQU.

1. Does the SQU have an organized program of formal activities leading to faculty orientation?

   Yes___ No___

2. If Yes, what type of program?

Was/Is it effective in assisting with the process of facilitating an adequate understanding of and adaptation to the SQU's academic and cultural setting?

   Yes___ No___

3. If not, do you believe a faculty orientation program is needed at the SQU?
   Yes___ No___

Needs Assessment Survey For Faculty Orientation

You are cordially asked to respond to the following need items to share your perceptions and experiences on the relative importance of each item as a faculty orientation need to be included in the program. The survey is designed to ask questions about your orientation with SQU's academic and cultural setting, administrative and professional faculty affairs, faculty-student affairs, classroom instruction and faculty personal affairs.

Directions:

For the following items, please indicate whether or not the following information/services (item) was made available to you by checking "Yes" or "No". Then select and check the "letter" (A B C D E) representing the most accurate response to indicate your perception and experience of the relative importance of each information/service (item) as a faculty orientation need to be included in the program.

Select your response on the relative importance of each orientation item from the following:

A = Definitely important
B = Important
C = Neutral
D = Not important
E = Definitely not important

I. SQU's Academic and Cultural setting:

	Yes	No	A	B	C	D	E
1. Information on SQU's Educational goals and programs	__	__	__	__	__	__	__
2. Information on SQU's organizational structure and governance	__	__	__	__	__	__	__
3. Information on SQU's Organizational culture	__	__	__	__	__	__	__
4. An understanding and application of SQU's credit-unit system	__	__	__	__	__	__	__
5. Introduction to university administrators	__	__	__	__	__	__	__
6. Tour of the campus, colllege and department	__	__	__	__	__	__	__

II. Administrative and Professional Faculty Affairs:

	Yes	No	A	B	C	D	E
7. Information on SQU's policies/guidelines for promotion	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
8. SQU's evaluation criteria used to evaluate classroom instruction	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
9. Procedure in ordering instructional and other supplies.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
10. SQU's Academic grading system.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
11. Availability of research facilities.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
12. Availability of secretarial support services.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

III. Faculty-Student Affairs:

	Yes	No	A	B	C	D	E
13. Types of students enrolled.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
14. Student's academic ability and socio-economic background.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
15. Student's educational background.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
16. Academic counseling and guidance.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
17. Student/faculty relationship.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
18. Student's conduct and mannerism.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

IV. Classroom Instruction:

	Yes	No	A	B	C	D	E
19. Cross cultural teaching.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20. Physical setting of classroom (classroom arrangement).	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
21. Teaching/learning styles appropriate for omani students.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
22. Availability of instructional facilities such as library, audio-visual aids, etc.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
23. Testing procedures and the availability of test information.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
24. Disciplinary procedures for students including probation and academic dismissal.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

V. Faculty Personal Affairs:

	Yes	No	A	B	C	D	E
25. Community life (shopping centers, restaurants, banking, etc.)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
26. Campus life.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
27. Information on housing.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
28. Public and private schools in the country.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
29. Recreational facilities on and off the campus.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
30. Culture, religion and its people.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

VI. What additional information/assistance would you consider important for faculty orientation?

(Please be as specific as possible.)

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By Anne E. Elliott & Susan M. Drake

Moving From "Two Solitudes" Towards a "Blended" Culture in School / University Partnerships.

This paper describes the creation of a Centre on Collaborative Research which was established to study collaborative processes in school/university partnerships. The Centre served as a place for these two diverse cultures to meet and establish a unique culture of its own. Two school/university relationships serve as a microcosm for the characteristics of collaborative partnerships which are emerging both in individual projects and in the maintenance of the Centre itself. Such characteristics as voluntary participation, cultural sensitivity, shared language, similar personal values, the nature of parity and reciprocity, dilemmas or conflict and the employment of collaborative reflection are discussed in both contexts.

WE ARE TWO UNIVERSITY professors in a faculty of education who are members of the steering committee for a recently founded Centre on Collaborative Research which was established to chart the path of collaborative processes in university/school partnerships. While faculties of education are currently being encouraged to form collaborative partnerships with teachers, few studies have investigated the process and literature is limited because many of these partnerships are still developing (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994). As a result, there is no clear professional definition to guide those attempting to avoid old patterns where one partner, usually the university-based person, is in control of the expertise, design and evaluation of the project. The Centre on Collaborative Research was created to address this issue and to explore the principles underlying authentic collaboration.

Several individual collaborative research projects between university and school partners have been established under the auspices of the Centre on Collaborative Research. As these partnerships evolved, we charted the generic characteristics of the collaborative process that have emerged over several projects. We, then, began to see a parallel between the characteristics of our individual partnerships and the characteristics inherent to the development of the Centre itself. These observations resulted in the identification of several generic characteristics related to establishing authentic collaborations that move beyond old hierarchical models. This insight convinced us that we indeed do have something to share with

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others who wish to find ways to work with field-based partners in meaningful and authentic collaborations. This paper is a description of the establishment and goals of the Centre on Collaborative Research and of how it emerged as a "blended culture" that seems to fall in a neutral zone somewhere between those two disparate institutions: schools and universities. Additionally, we will describe the parallel characteristics of two separate partnerships developed in the "blended culture" of the Centre and show how the characteristics central to these partnerships are essential to the success of the Centre itself. We believe that the commonality of the characteristics in both the Centre and the projects within the Centre suggest that these characteristics are in fact central to the whole collaborative process however it is practiced. It is our hope that our experiences on both levels will add to the understanding of how successfully equitable collaborative partnerships can evolve and be sustained. Our objective is to both inform our own future actions and act as a guide for others who wish to tread this path in collaborative research in the spirit of equality.

The Problem of Two Solitudes

One of the major obstacles to creating functional collaborative relationships is the confusion about what collaboration really is and how it really works. Merely to use the term "collaborative" to describe a relationship does not mean that the old hierarchical "two solitudes" problem has been avoided. Cook and Friend suggest the following definition: "Interpersonal collaboration is a style for direct interaction between at least two coequal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work toward a common goal" (p.5, 1992). Such a definition serves to illustrate the difficulties inherent in trying to bring two partners together to share decision-making around a common goal, when they come from two disparate cultures holding different and often oppositional values.

Our experience is congruent with Huberman's (1990) declaration that one of the greatest obstacles to equitable collaboration is the sharp difference between school and university cultures. These separate and disconnected cultures or what Huberman calls the "chronic two communities problem" hold different norms, goals, values and even language which can all lead to either failed or inadequate communication (Butt, Raymond & Yamagishi, 1987; Wagner, 1993). This historic and traditional difference has manifested itself as a struggle between who is expert and who holds legitimate knowledge (Gitlin et al, 1992) and has often resulted in researchers doing lightening raids on classrooms to gather data for studies which often have very little relevance for the teachers or the students involved.

One thing both cultures appear to have in common is a tradition of non-collaboration. The university culture values individual achievement which fosters competition and isolation. School cultures stress teacher accountability and student achievement, but teachers often feel isolated behind closed classroom doors. If the isolationist gulf between members of the same community is difficult to bridge, then, the gulf between schools and universities is even greater. Tension can emerge as each institution requires different skills from its faculty which are often oppositional in nature such as the writing of scholarly publications or the conducting of effective cafeteria duty (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994; Gitlin et al, 1992).

The Need for Change

In spite of the readily identifiable difficulties associated with forming collaborative partnerships, it has recently been in vogue to get "educational researchers into meaningful, durable interactions with practitioners" (Huberman, 1990, p. 364). Nevertheless, as educators grapple with responses to a rapidly changing world, there has been an increased push from all parties to form collaborative university/school partnerships in order to derive the benefits of having theory and practice inform each other. Fullan (1993) has warned us that, "The ability to collaborate on both a small-and large-scale is becoming one of the core requisites of postmodern society" (p.14).

The Centre on Collaborative Research: A Response to the Need for Change

In 1991, in response to these issues, Susan, Anne, and eight colleagues at the university, were instrumental in establishing a Faculty of Education Centre on Collaborative Research. Although all founding members were from the Education Faculty, subsequently membership has broadened to include both members from other faculties and school boards. The goal of the Centre, which is to establish collaborative partnerships between university and schools and to chart the process of collaboration as it emerges over many different projects, has served to attract a variety of members. Other goals include exploring mutual concerns while remaining sensitive to differences and attending to the nature of reciprocity within partnerships. Finally, we want to make every effort to reduce the gaps between theory and practice so they can mutually inform each other.

Since its inception, the Centre has been successful in obtaining support from the university community in terms of grants, space and equipment. Currently, as we chart the collaborative process, there are many separate and interwoven collaborative projects at various stages of development occurring in the Centre.

At this time, we can see that one of the internal benefits of our Centre has been a sense of connection among members that has gone a long way towards breaking down the traditional sense of isolation endemic to university life. Other benefits are increased sharing of research, both formally and informally, increased dialogue about on-going projects and sharing of resources and experience. New faculty members who have joined the Centre report a relatively smooth transition from school to university culture and give the collegiality found in the Centre some of the credit (Scott, in press).

While internal cohesiveness has been important, the primary goal of the Centre on Collaborative Research remains a desire to serve as a bridge between school and university culture and to create a new environment where both cultures are equally valued. Traditionally, we are aware, university researchers have descended from "on high" (in our case the university is on an escarpment over-looking the city) to enter schools as well-mannered guests or visitors conducting lightening research raids. Seldom have school-based partners come to the university for any purpose beyond taking courses. In fact, former student status makes it difficult for some partners to enter the university setting and establish an equitable research relationship with former professors. We consciously confronted these problems and identified the Centre as a neutral environment where individual needs can be "blended" in a new culture. In this "blended" culture all partners are encouraged to participate in the activities of the Centre equally. First, in order to facilitate this participation, we hold some of our collaborative meetings with partners at the university in the Collaborative Centre office. These meetings are by nature informal (partly because the space is small) and the result is a social context for our collaborations that moves towards what Noddings (1984) has called "the ethic of care". As partners interact more often, a sense of collegiality has emerged in the Centre itself that is separate from either of our two institutions.

Second, we have invited a number of scholars to speak to the university at large on issues related to collaborative research. These sessions have been followed by wine and cheese receptions where interaction is informal and lively. University researchers and school-based partners, all members of the Centre, attend such functions. Discussions following such events help to break down the language barrier often felt between researchers and practitioners. It seems that school-based practitioners are more likely to attend when they recognize that other practitioners, with whom they have much in common, will also be in attendance. As attendance at any such meeting or event is totally voluntary, we believe that those who do attend are personally motivated to continue the collaborative process.

Finally, we also firmly believe that, as we report the results of our research at conferences, in the true sense of collaboration, both voices and perspectives should be heard in the public forum. To this end, several members of the Centre on Collaborative Research attended the largest Canadian national educational research conference held in Ottawa in 1993 in order to present papers on a variety of collaborative projects. The field-based partners, with financial help from their boards, joined us as equal research partners in order to present results of various collaborative projects. In advance, several partners reported feeling nervous and uncertain about what to expect. At the conference, however, partners attended sessions which were of interest to them and on several occasions participated fully in the dialogue. In one instance, two of our partners disagreed strongly with the theory presented and did not hesitate to point out the pitfalls from their classroom perspective of applying this theory to practice.

Anne's field notes reveal a marked contrast between the conversation going to the conference between our field-based partners and the conversation on the way home. Conversation on the way to Ottawa had been personal and quite nonprofessional. On the return driving trip (about 6 hours) the conversation in the cars and at rest stops was almost exclusively about matters related to ideas presented at the conference. School-based partners reported feeling satisfied that not only had they attended what had previously been a sacrosanct academic conference, but that they felt welcome. They were particularly comfortable with the fact that they attended with a group of practitioners so they felt less like one voice "crying in the wilderness". Additionally, they confirmed that they felt their views had contributed to any discussions in which they chose to participate. It was also noted by participants that the whole group had a wonderful time together, thus, deepening the collegial relationships within the Collaborative Centre.

As we reflected upon the direction in which the Centre has gone, we recognized that we have indeed been able to develop a "blended culture" which is unlike either of our two primary institutions. We believe that our success in this regard is related to the way the partnerships have been played out under the umbrella of the Centre. We believe that one way to illustrate the nature of the Centre is by describing the characteristics of two specific projects. These projects can serve as a microcosm for the essential characteristics of the Centre itself.

Characteristics of Collaborative Relationships Across Two Projects

We will describe two distinct collaborative projects between each of the authors and a classroom teacher. Both Susan and Jan and Anne and Marilee have built collaborative partnerships which have endured over time and through a series of in-class projects. As we conducted our inquiry into the common characteristics of our two partnerships, we used a phenomenological framework because we both believe that qualitative research in general and phenomenology more specifically, is best suited to a rich description of the social construction of reality that each person accomplishes from her own perspective (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Phenomenological inquiry is, also, a form of interpretive inquiry that focuses on human perceptions and especially on the aesthetic qualities of human experience (Willis, 1991). In this tradition we focused and reflected individually and together on the interactive experiences with our partners.

The partnerships were formed separately to pursue different classroom projects which had their own inherent merit with field notes, observational notes and researcher journals serving as the data. Additionally, each partnership conducted under the umbrella of the Centre on Collaborative Research served as data for a larger project on the collaborative process itself. Through informal discussions, Susan and Anne began to explore the way this process had been played out over time in their individual projects. As we compared our research processes, we found similarities between our methods of research and both Hollingsworth's (1992) "collaborative conversations" and Van Manen's (1989) "hermeneutic conversations" of lived experience. We engaged in conversations and written reflections with our respective partners from which mutually negotiated themes emerged. This lively interactive process eventually resulted in co-authored papers (Elliott & Lamond, 1993; Basaraba & Drake, 1993) which were then presented at a national research conference.

Finally, Susan and Anne continued to explore the synthesis of their two experiences by determining the common characteristics of their parallel experiences. This entailed revisiting all previous data and coding common characteristics while noting differences. In addition, collaborative reflective conversations continued as we checked with our partners about the overall accuracy of the characteristics of our partnerships and the role the Centre on Collaborative Research is playing in the emergent process.

Jan and Susan:

Jan Basaraba teaches English in a high school and is also the assistant head of her department. Jan had been at two presentations that Susan had given on an integrated approach to curriculum development called The Story Model (Drake et al., 1992). She was interested in finding ways in which to motivate her English students and this particular approach appealed to her.

Susan had developed The Story Model with a group of educators who were specialists in different subject areas. Initial attempts had been successfully implemented and she was eager to see how other teachers would implement it in different areas.

Jan and Susan had briefly worked in the same school as high school teachers. Then, Susan had moved to work at the

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Faculty of Education. Jan had been pursuing further English courses at the university but had not begun a masters program, so she was not familiar with Susan's environment or the expectations of academic life.

This collaboration has gone through a number of different phases. Initially, Susan visited Jan's classroom and helped implement the curriculum. Then, they did several presentations together on The Story Model for other interested educators. Jan audited one of Susan's graduate courses where she used the curriculum model to teach. Finally, Jan returned to her school setting and worked with other teachers to continue implementing the ideas she had learned. Susan and Jan then met frequently to compare notes and deepen understanding of how the model can be utilized.

Marilee and Anne:

Marilee Lamond is a classroom teacher who has specialized in primary education for over twenty years. During this time, she has augmented her professional experience by taking an undergraduate degree, a Master's of Education and a Primary Specialist Certificate. Wishing to continue her professional growth as a classroom teacher, she has actively sought a collaborative relationship with Anne, a university professor. Marilee's goals have been to enhance her experience by participating in action research projects within the confines of her own classroom and to share the results with other teachers. As a researcher, Anne has found ready access to a primary class to be a functional way to pursue some of her own questions.

To date, Marilee and Anne have collaborated on several classroom based projects grounded in the action-research model advocated by McNiff (1988) and the reflective practitioner as described by Schon (1986). As they began to consider the nature of their collaborative process, they explicitly noted the different lenses each brought to the research site based on the values held by the institution with which each is primarily identified. Although the differing lenses had always been a part of their implicit relationship, only when they began to discuss the collaborative process did the discussion become explicit. The characteristics of the collaboration were determined through a revisitation of previous data and a mutual negotiation of emergent themes. Finally, a paper was written in two voices reflecting their diverse lenses on the mutually agreed upon characteristics of their collaboration (Elliott & Lamond, 1993).

The Caring Relationship: An Umbrella for Collaboration

While caring and friendship seemed trite and obvious characteristics initially, as we proceeded through our reflective dialogues, we determined that not only was this characteristic not trite, in fact, it was perhaps the most essential element of all (Drake & Basaraba, 1993; Elliott & Lamond, 1993). All partners agreed that this "ethic of care" (Noddings, 1984) was the glue that kept the fabric of our projects together. We came to this conclusion by discussing such themes as the guilt each of us felt if time constraints kept us from fulfilling a commitment we had made not only to the project but to the partner. Issues and crisis in personal lives became shared and supported. A sense of intimacy grew and pervaded the partnership, thus enhancing and deepening the collaborative conversations (Hollingsworth, 1992). As busy women leading many-layered lives, it was impossible to keep professional and personal lives separate, particularly as projects encroached on personal time. "A very important aspect of our relationship is that we have become good friends and through this friendship and our mutual interests we have enhanced each other's growth" (Elliott & Lamond, 1993). The commitment to the project, thus, gradually came to be seen in part as a commitment to the partner which in turn deepened the commitment to the project. "We felt commitment to each other and so, in spite of time pressures, we continued (with the project)" (Drake & Basaraba, 1993).

Characteristics Central to Our Collaborative Partnerships

The following characteristics appeared in both our relationships and all four of us agree that they are central to our successful collaborations.

1) Voluntary Participation: Unsuccessful collaborations characterized by conflict and lack of commitment (Clift, Johnson, Holland & Veal, 1992) occur when the partnership is not voluntary. All partners agree that the collaborative process was enhanced by the control each partner felt by knowing that the partnership could be ended at any time.

2) Cultural Sensitivity: Hattrup & Bickel (1993) identify the issue of cultural sensitivity on both parts as essential for collaboration to be successful between schools and university. The "two solitudes" sense of isolation was lessened in both partnerships by a familiarity and respect for the other's institution. In part, this attitude was established as a result of past experience. Susan had recently taught in the same school as Jan and had a nodding acquaintance with her. More recently, Jan audited a Master's course offered by Susan. Anne, a former classroom teacher, is familiar with the pressures of elementary teaching, whereas, Marilee having completed her Master's of Education, has some understanding of the demands of the university milieu.

3) Shared Language: The necessity for incorporating a shared language when working together in collaboration has been noted by Crowe, Levine and Nager, 1992. Marilee and Anne "negotiated" a shared language as the project goals were being established. At that time they read some of the same materials and began to integrate the language of theory together with the language of practice in a way to suit their own communication. Susan brought new language to the project by introducing it in workshops attended by Jan. In day-to-day lessons the students, Jan and Susan created personal meaning for the terms used.

It seems that acceptance of the language of the other partner works both ways. Acceptance and use of university knowledge and the language used to describe that knowledge is a prerequisite to academic equality between partners (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994). Additionally, we found that previous classroom experience and a sensitivity to the language of practice was a key component in establishing full equality as partners. It was the resultant "blended" language that served to bridge the gap between theory and practice and that enabled an equitable partnership to develop.

4) Complementary Goals: Although an overall commitment to the success of the project is a unifying factor, each partner appears to have slightly different specific objectives which are nevertheless complementary in nature. Jan wanted her students, whom she perceived to be lacking in motivation, to have a good educative experience. Susan's goal was more curriculum oriented as she wanted to see the innovative curriculum she had devised succeed with students. These agendas, although conceptually slightly different, were not mutually exclusive but rather complementary in nature.

For Anne and Marilee, individual project goals were formulated in the initial stages of dialogue when brainstorming, reflection and negotiation were on-going. Final specific project goals emerged from this process and were shared, although the order of importance or emphasis might vary for each partner. Clearly both partnerships had shared and complimentary goals which has been considered an essential prerequisite for collaboration (Friend & Cook, 1992).

5) Similar Personal Values: We recognize that it is easier to work with partners who have much in common on several levels. All four of us are around the same age, have the same roots, have taught for many years and have families at about the same age. When Susan and Anne, already close friends, introduced their partners to each other, there was an instant recognition of shared experience and warm friendliness developed. Susan and Jan identify themselves as risk-takers who are willing to move into uncharted territory and who could tolerate a certain amount of ambiguity. Anne and Marilee note that both have natural curiosity, and a desire to try new avenues for personal growth. Even more importantly, both pairs of partners identified an intimacy that developed through supporting each other during personally difficult times such as marriage breakdown and illness.

6) The Nature of Parity and Reciprocity: In order to make the collaboration authentic there is a necessity for parity and reciprocity to be addressed (Crowe, Levine & Nager, 1992). The reality of classroom accountability and evaluation is that the classroom teachers, Jan and Marilee, assume the major responsibility for student success. As the curriculum implementation strategies became research projects, the commitment to success of students in relation to the project was shared. On the other hand, Susan and Anne, as researchers, assumed the primary responsibility for ensuring data was collected throughout and subsequently for writing about the project. Marilee and Anne presented several different workshops which were planned together. Thus, although holding slightly different orientations to the project, partners have been equally committed to success. Both a research outcome perspective and a student outcome perspective ensured that the projects were never perceived as belonging primarily to one of the partners.

7) Dilemmas/ Conflict: Every collaborative project appears to rest on the horns of some dilemma or conflict (Drake, 1993). For Susan and Jan the conflict was largely internal as Susan struggled to let Jan interpret the curriculum in a way that might differ from her own. Later in the project, both partners admitted feeling guilty about demands made upon the other throughout the project. Susan felt that perhaps she was not being supportive enough of Jan, as time constraints prevented her from being in the class as often as she would have liked. Jan, on the other hand, had her own time constraints in terms of reading all of the material Susan gave her. These conflicts, being internal, were not explicitly acknowledged until near the end of the project when journal entries were shared. Then, both partners admitted feeling guilty about letting the other down. Paradoxically, this shared feeling of guilt served to alleviate it to some extent.

Anne and Marilee, however, often talked about the constraints they each felt by the nature of the demands made by their diverse institutions. Workshop and conference presentations are time-consuming and valued more by the university community than by Marilee's principal. Additionally, while Marilee devoted her energies and attention to the current project, she felt guilty that she might be neglecting other curriculum possibilities as a result of time spent ensuring the success of the current project. At times, also, she felt a subtle expression of resentment from some of her colleagues, as she attempted to continue her professional growth. This attitude made her uncomfortable and contributed to a sense of isolation within her own institution. According to Cornbleth and Ellsworth (1994), this attitude is not uncommon, as such partnerships may have "...varying acceptance by peers at both the school and the university..."(p.61).

8) Employment of Collaborative Reflection: In the two partnerships, collaborative reflection has been a central element. The ability to reflect separately through journal or field note keeping or observational notes and then to deepen understanding by discussing these reflections is an essential ingredient to both partnerships. "The process that Anne and I go through has made me more aware of the value of collaborative reflection. It has become my favorite stage and it is helpful to have the different perspectives" (Elliott & Lamond, 1993). Through a continuous spiral of reflective activities much negotiation and development of this relationship occurred.

Parallel Characteristics in the Centre on Collaborative Research

As we reflect upon the role of our Centre on Collaborative Research in providing a supportive environment for collaboration, we see that the characteristics of our individual collaborative relationships can serve as a microcosm for the growth of the Centre on Collaborative Research.

As with the individual projects described, those who have committed themselves to the Centre's development have made strong connections on a personal level and the result is the emergence of a caring relationship among members. Faculty members at the university have commented upon the role the Centre has played in alleviating the sense of isolation endemic in the academy. Field-based partners have found other teachers with similar interests involved with the Centre. Overall a stronger sense of collegiality exists among all partners as high voluntary attendance at smaller planning meetings and larger membership or social events indicates that such interactions are deemed both worthy and enjoyable. Summer months are the best possible time for guest speakers and it is a measure of their motivation and commitment that partners are willing to interrupt their summer holidays in order to attend a Centre sponsored function.

The on-going dialogues, as a result of these connections, have encouraged a shared language to emerge around educational issues. Language no longer seems to be as great a barrier. As more and more projects reach completion, we have a bank of shared experiences, our own stories and a mutually negotiated language around which to discuss them.

We acknowledge that, although we are a variety of ages and at various stages in our careers, we have many qualities in common. We are all educational professionals who have a sincere interest in the welfare of students in classrooms. Most of us have teaching certificates and have spent or are spending some part of our career in classrooms. We are all women. Most of us live harried lives juggling family responsibilities simultaneously with our careers.

We have found that the conflicts, inherent to collaborative interactions, are mostly around these harried lives and the resultant time constraints. At times, it is frustratingly difficult to find meeting times when all can attend. One partner is almost certainly in the classroom and, under the current fiscal restraints, cannot readily get release time. Meetings, thus, must be held after hours when everyone is tired.

Nevertheless, the growth of the Centre and the success of many projects within it has helped members to articulate goals for this "blended culture". These goals have been formulated through discussion and negotiation at larger meetings and appear in print on the brochure for the Centre.

With many successes behind us, we sense that the Faculty of Education Centre on Collaborative Research is beginning to be seen as a place where both partners can put aside old patterns of hierarchical interaction and isolation to begin a new way of letting theory and practice inform each other. It is our belief that, as we forge new paths, the collaborative projects we undertake will allow both partners to gain new perspectives on knowledge and experience and enhance each other's growth. We agree with Cornbleth and Ellsworth (1994) that, "...in a school -university partnership program, the intermingling of personnel will benefit each institution" (p, 53). Improved educational practice in all educational spheres should be the ultimate result. Under the auspices of the activities of the Centre we believe we have created a culture where complimentary agendas are able to co-exist or "blend". Additionally, we hope and believe that our experiences may suggest new possibilities to other university/school researchers.

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Anne E. Elliott and Susan M. Drake are from the Brock Faculty of Education, Centre on Collaborative Research, Brock University, St. Catherines, Ontario.

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By Louis Schmier

Confronting Faculty Fear of Student Teaching Evaluations: A Personal Perspective

Faculty are fearful about being judged as teachers by students whose judgement they do not trust. They are anxious about being evaluated for being something that most do not think they are, for which they were not trained, about which they seldom reflect, for which they are not promoted or given tenure, and from which they do not derive prestige or reputation. Yet, I have found that a meaningful and honest student teaching evaluation can be an effective method for the improvement of class room communication and student learning.

TRICK or TREAT! I'll bet that you didn't know it is still halloween. At least, it seems that way on our campuses. That realization came to me this rare but deliciously nippy pre-dawn April morning as I race-walked through a slight fog that cast a supernatural haze over the landscape.

I had left the house with what I thought was little on my mind except anticipating the agonizing effects of a week's layoff because of a knee I had wrenched while gardening last weekend. Anyway, about a couple of blocks into my walk, I was startled momentarily almost out of my grubbies. I stopped to catch my breath. My heart fluttered a bit. I dared to look across the street. On the curb was a darkened, irregularly shaped mass ominously looming out from the ground. Its contorted shadows seemed to reveal concealed grotesque demons. As I approached it, I saw that it was the heaping results of what was obviously a weekend of robust spring cleaning. Then, I saw what had caught the corner of my eye. In this pile of shadowy garage sale rejects, reflecting the light from the street lamp from across the street, shone a bright orange plastic jack-o-lantern. It was secretly peering out from under the slightly open lid of a city garbage container. It's two sharply angled black eyes glaring at me with sinister mischievousness as if it had been laying in ambush for some innocent to pass by and now was about to jump out at me to rip out my throat. I chuckled and started off again.

But, as I regained my pace I began to think mischievous thoughts about that pumpkin and how so many faculty would love to place it at their door to ward off a particularly evil hobgoblin that is haunting the halls of ivy. Oh, it is a fearsome creature, a heinous gremlin, a merciless ghoul, a profane demon, a pernicious fiend. It is called the "STUDENT TEACHING EVALUATION."

Its very name strikes terror in the hearts of faculty. They walk nervously

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about, constantly glancing over their shoulders, their ears sharpened for its slightest sound, their eyes roaming to detect its slightest movement. They are ever on the alert for the presence of this phantom, ready to make a mad dash for their lives should it suddenly appear. They sit tensely at their desks, behind the protection of heavily barricaded doors. They stand behind the lectern, casting nervous glances at the door, fearful that it will enter their classrooms when they least expect it and they are the most exposed. Their blood turns ice cold at the thought of confronting its twisted, snarled gargoyle features. They shake with uncontrollable fright as the eerie sound of its ghoulish moaning and groaning that reminds them that it never rests in its quest for fresh victims.

The faculty know that those who appear to be normal students and administrators are really this hobgoblin's disguised minions ready to betray the presence of the weakest faculty soul. They scurry about knocking on every door. They dance tauntingly about any faculty who dares to travel the campus. They teasingly wave wads of questionnaires, computerized answer sheets, portfolio models, grade surveys, student grape-vine sheets, enrollment figures, salary endorsements, and promotion and tenure recommendations in the sweating faces of the harassed faculty. Their high pitched cackling betrays the sadistic glee they get out of their torment.

With fearful resignation, professors know that there is no place to hide from this dreaded phantom. Ultimately they know that they will fall prey to it. When it has them in its clutches, they fear it will pluck out their hearts, tear them limb from limb, and condemn their souls to torturous purgatory.

To protect themselves, the faculty offer magical incantations to banish this monster and its serving hordes from the campuses. "Nobody really knows what good teaching is, so how can anyone measure it?" they chant. They supplicate, "There is little to teaching beyond knowing the subject." "Student evaluations of our teaching are worthless," they sing," because they're related to the grades the students receive." They cry out, "Students do not know what's best for them." "We have to keep the amateurs, the politicians, and administrators out of the classroom," they wail in anguish.

We can be facetious and smirk about the irony of professors being so nervous about having their class room performance evaluated when they always are saying that they are in the business of evaluating the performance of others. Now, I do think there is something to be said about questioning the validity of the measuring instrument, about being skeptical of any call for faculty evaluations of teaching when all the other signals on our campuses seem to indicate a general administrative disinterest in both classroom teaching and the creation of the campus as a learning community, about being anxious about its misuse and abuse, and about being suspicious of the true and hidden purpose of it all. But, I think there is more to this issue of evaluation of faculty than meets the eye.

All that skepticism, cynicism, and anger about evaluations hide fear, a fear of being judged for something that most of faculty do not think they are. For the truth is that few professors identify themselves as teachers in the first place. "It's a case of mistaken identity," they protest. They are not teachers of this or of that. They are scholars in this or that field; they are professors of this or that discipline. They find themselves in the classroom, but feel far more comfortable in an archive researching this or in a lab experimenting on that, or writing this or presenting that, or consulting on this. Their sense of purpose, accomplishment, and success has little to with the classroom. Few were hired for their classroom mastery. All too many of them cringe at being evaluated for doing something about which few of them know very much other than writing an essay called a lecture, standing up in front of a class, and talking. They're being measured on something for which they were not trained to do, about which they seldom reflect, and on which they seldom articulate.

Let's face it. Almost all learning about teaching takes place on the job, often at the expense of students. Without few, if any, alternative classroom models, or without any training, most professors fall back on their own experiences as students and base their own teaching on the model of their lecturing professors. "Hey, that's the way I was taught," they proclaim. "And Dr. so and so was a damn good teacher. He knew what he was doing. Look how much I learned. And, if it was good enough for me, it's good enough for them."

Faculty know how to comb archives or to run experiments in labs or to draw up surveys. They can analyze a document or the results of a lab experiment or the outcome of a clinical study. They were trained to present conference papers, publish scholarly articles and books, and talk in a professional jargon. They were educated to reflect on the sophisticated issues associated with their disciplines. They were not trained to articulate a philosophy of education.

They were not trained in the processes of learning. They were not taught how to use the tools of teaching. They were taught so little that would allow them to make intelligent choices about teaching, about ways to introduce a variety of instruction other than lecturing, about involving students in a variety of roles other than as passive note takers, about evaluating students, about using new technologies, about doing so much more in the classroom other than lecture. The future scholars were not shown how to be future teachers; they were not shown how to communicate their knowledge to those who are not knowledgeable; they were not shown how to find the intellectual, attitudinal, and emotional entry passageways into the students hearts, souls and minds.

It's little wonder that faculty are far more secure talking about their discipline. They have the virtual unassailable control of the expert and they have a greater sense of who they are. In effect, it seems to them that amateurish outsiders are doing more than just changing the rules of engagement on them without a protective grandfather clause. They are challenging beloved values, altering priorities, stripping away control, exposing weaknesses, ripping away masks, revealing amateurishness, eroding authority, questioning identity, challenging purpose, and establishing new goals. They are threatening the very souls of the professor. They are attacking the meaning of professor's existence.

All that skepticism, cynicism, and anger about evaluations hide fear, a fear of being judged by the students. Can you imagine resting your salary, your promotion, your tenure, your future on the opinion of some teenage kid or some older uniformed adult whom you don't know and who doesn't know you? One of my colleagues phrased it this way, "If they know so much about what should be going on in the classroom, why aren't they teaching the course. Who's the professor here? I mean, if they know so much about what's good for them and what I am supposed to do, what am I here for?" For those professors who don't care about the students, who don't want to know them, who don't even want to learn their names, who are not going to be "touchy-feely" with the students, for those professors who exercise power over students rather than be in a state of mutuality with them, for those professors who meekly stand by without protest as classes grow in size while they and the students become faint specks on the horizon to each other, for those professors who do not forge bonds of trust with their students or create learning communities in their classrooms, for those professors who see no need to reconstruct one-way dictation into two-way communication, for those professors who have little mutuality and relatedness with the students, for all those professors such anonymity and distance is coming back to haunt them. They don't know who is evaluating them anymore than they believe those who are evaluating them know them. They see it as an intolerable situation of inept suspicious strangers judging knowledgeable, suspicious strangers.

But, at the heart of it all, all that skepticism, cynicism, and anger about evaluations hide fear, a fear of looking at themselves in a mirror, a fear of how their professional and personal lives might be changed or have to be changed if the world talks back. Professors say they are agents of change in society and the classroom, but are fearful of changing themselves; they talk so much about that world out there, but cringe at attempts to understand the world inside themselves. Evaluation in its highest form is not so much about subject knowledge or technical competence of classroom delivery, as it is about inner drives and desires, a reminder that an education is an inward journey. We academics have so arrogantly, so long promoted the myth of objectivity, that accurate judgements can only be made disengaged from afar, that claims truth can be attained only if it is untainted by personal bias, that insists on a form of personal and professional distance learning that holds only from faraway can we truly evaluate and accurately know things. For "things" read not only subject matter, but students as well. We have so distorted our view of life by believing that we can easily remove ourselves from ourselves and students.

We live, however, in a world of subjectivity, and I think that scares a lot of us because subjectivity makes demands on our personal lives. It requires that we acknowledge our involvement with the world around us, that we recognize that we are frail humans no less than are the students. I think so often we forget that our humanity and subjectivity was not erased with the bestowal of the hood.

And so, evaluations make us address the detached, impersonal, inanimate "teach-talk" that we are fond of unconsciously using. In this professional jargon one human being becomes a separated lifeless thing called "teacher." Another becomes a faceless image called "student." It's like we walk through a wax museum. We disengage from ourselves; we stand apart and look at ourselves and students as something else, a place outside of us and them where education supposedly takes place. When we "teach-talk," we lose our connection with ourselves, our humanity, our past, present and future; we lose our connection with others. Evaluations can have the uncomfortable impact of proclaiming that learning, education, teaching is a human, personal experience of living which takes place within both the teacher and the student. What happens in the classroom happens to a *ME*, to a *HIM* or a *HER*, not to an *IT* or a *SOMETHING*. And when we evaluate teaching, we are evaluating what goes on inside of us, our being, not something out there. The evaluation forces us to confront the need to surrender power over the students and create a mutuality with them. We are in charge of our classes. Whether we use that responsibility creatively and productively to foster a relatedness to them is another matter.

Imagine how much our lives would be changed if we let the students talk back to us and establish a relatedness which has hitherto either been lost or never had existed. I will repeat that I believe teachers are care-givers. To be a care-giver, however, you must trust; to trust, you must understand; to understand, you must listen; to listen, you must hear. You must understand, listen to, and hear yourself; you must understand, listen to, and hear others. If we do not, we cannot care for ourselves; if we cannot care for ourselves, we cannot care for others.

Teaching, I think, is a vulnerable act of "spilling your guts" by which the personal becomes public. For me to properly teach, I have to reveal things about which I feel very deeply. Sometime that means even the intimate details of my personal life, but more often it means issues I find crucial and compelling which have helped shape who I am. Such vulnerability requires a lot of courage to exercise among strangers. To do that, I risk the judgement that comes with the exposure of my passions to public scrutiny.

I like to hear from students. I want to hear from students. I think that is important. Too many of us professors talk too much. Too many of us listen too little. I think there are two general categories of teachers. There are those who are very much taken with themselves and are the same with everyone and, therefore, oblivious to the human diversity with whom they deal. There are others who are concerned with those with whom they deal and are different with different students and vary themselves to meet the needs of the students. In a caring environment you must listen. If you listen, you're groping to find out what students need and what they say about their current education. I'm a better teacher if I am informed. I encourage students to be open and honest in their comments, to be frank with me about their feelings, their angers, their fears, and their disappointments. It's part of the process of learning who we are in our professional lives. I have found deep insights in student's comments if I have the courage to listen.

So, I think we should welcome such evaluations. I don't see them as tormenting gremlins and threatening hobgoblins to be combatted. I greet them as soothing angels of renewal. I have found that the sense of defenseless exposure wanes proportionally to the growing strength of a trust bond in the classroom. For an effective and honest evaluation, faculty have to draw students into community with them. I work very hard to establish a bond of trust in my classes. It's the life's blood of the learning community that emerges. I spend the whole first week or two of class with personal introductory, trust, and bonding exercises in which I also partake. During that time, we have, as one student insightfully commented in her journal, "started stripping away our fears, defenses, and excuses for not doing things because we've started to know and trust each other and feel relaxed about things." I guess that's one reason I'm not afraid of evaluations and why my students almost always demand that they sign them. To the contrary, I welcome my students' comments. I have confidence in their judgement because I know them and they know me. I respect them and they respect me. I trust them and they trust me. My classes are one big, ongoing evaluation: weekly evaluations, weekly journals, daily personal discussions, open class evaluations, final evaluations, and unsolicited personal letters. I'm constantly asking my students "How's this working?" "What do you think?" "Should we adjust this, drop that, add this?" "How do you feel?" "Am I doing my job?" I find it's marvelous, uneasy, exciting, exhilarating, nerve-wracking, adventurous, uncomfortable to let the world talk back to me.

No, the evaluations are not the hobgoblin out there. The real hobgoblin is

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here inside us. I need that evaluation to help me avoid stagnation. It helps me to forever climb my mountain. It helps me to change and to grow, and help nurture the new that is coming behind me. I need that evaluation, that feedback, that assessment, whatever you want to call it, to help me teach and live both fully and well. I need that evaluation to help me reflect on how I label myself, how that labelling affects how I perceive myself, how I expect myself to behave, how I label students, how I perceive them, how I expect them to behave. I need that evaluation to help me assess my skills in getting to both myself and the students. I need that evaluation to help me to see if I know how to use those skills, if I have the courage to use them, and what I have to do to improve them. Evaluations help me to understand my own inner drives and desires; why I do what I do. Evaluations help prevent me from removing myself from both myself and the students, and to stay in a state of relatedness with both. Then, and only then, can I create that bond of trust among students and between the students and myself which I believe is so essential to true learning. Only then, can I create an authentic learning community with my students, my own spirit, my subject and hopefully my fellow teachers.

Louis Schmier teaches in the Department of History, Valdosta State University, Valdosta, Georgia.

By Gail G. Bollin, David Bolton, & Sharon B. Kletzien

Faculty Attitudes toward Student Course Evaluations

Faculty perceptions of the validity of student course evaluations will affect their willingness to use these evaluations to change their teaching behaviors or course content. Analyses of responses to a survey questionnaire indicated there is a positive correlation between faculty trust in the student evaluation process and use of student evaluations for changing teaching behaviors and course content. Belief that external factors play an important role in student evaluations is negatively correlated with use of student evaluations for changing teaching behaviors and course content.

STUDENT COURSE evaluations are used by universities for three major purposes: improving instruction, making promotion and tenure decisions, and rewarding faculty with merit salary. The role of these course evaluations in promotion and tenure decisions and faculty merit rewards is governed by administration and faculty agreement, and thus their effect is apparent. The role of course evaluations in improving instruction is less obvious because it depends on actions taken by individual faculty members as a result of these evaluations. If faculty members do not use the results of student course evaluations for instructional improvement, the significant investment in these evaluations for this purpose is wasted.

From a symbolic interactionist perspective, reality lies in the subject's perception of a situation (Kuhn, 1964). Consequently, only if faculty members believe in the accuracy of student course evaluations will they be willing to use the results to make changes in their teaching behaviors or in their course content. Faculty attitudes toward the process of students' evaluating their courses, then, may have the strongest impact on whether faculty use the information to improve their teaching. This study was designed to explore faculty attitudes toward the use of student course evaluations and the effect of these attitudes on faculty's changing of teaching behaviors or course content.

Although prior research has established that student evaluations are a valid measure of teaching effectiveness, particularly when student achievement is held to be the outcome of good teaching (Abrami, D'Apollonia, & Cohen, 1990; Callahan, 1992; Cohen, 1981; Marsh, 1984; Marsh & Dunkin, 1992), it seems clear that the results of this student evaluation research are not widely known. "A large number of faculty still disregards the research on student ratings and remains skeptical of the validity of student ratings" (Ory, 1991). Dent and Nicholas (1980) reported that almost one

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out of four (23%) of the 120 faculty they surveyed felt students were not qualified to evaluate their instructors. The results of Ryan, Anderson and Birchlev's (1980) study were even more negative. They found that 31% of their faculty sample did not believe students were capable of accurate teacher evaluation. Only 17% believed that students were "adequately capable" while 50% believed that students were "somewhat capable" of accurate teacher evaluation.

Baum and Brown (1980) cited widespread faculty beliefs that students use different criteria than do faculty to judge teaching. Feldman's (1988) analyses of 31 studies essentially disproved that contention. Although there were some differences in the rank ordering in importance of 22 instructional characteristics between faculty and students, they "were in fact more similar than different" (p. 314). Specifically, Feldman's meta-analysis revealed that both students and faculty valued enthusiasm and preparation and organization most highly followed by a teacher's fairness and the teacher's concern or respect for students. Students and faculty also tended to agree that dimensions such as the clarity of course objectives and requirements, the personality of the teacher, and the teacher's research activities were not very important in the assessment of good teaching. Students and faculty tended to disagree most in the area of the role of the instructor. Students placed "greater emphasis than faculty on teachers being interesting or stimulating and lesser emphasis on their being intellectually challenging" (Feldman, 1988, p. 312).

Faculty who discount student course evaluations for providing valid conclusions about the quality of teaching often maintain that extraneous variables are influencing students' judgments. Among the variables frequently mentioned are gender (of both instructor and student), class size, rank and experience of the faculty member, and personality of the instructor (Aleamoni, 1987). Extensive reviews of the studies done seem to indicate that little or no relationship exists between such variables and student evaluations (Aleamoni & Hexner, 1980; Cashin, 1988; Feldman, 1993, 1992, 1986a, 1986b, 1986c, 1984, 1983).

Although some recent studies have found significant relationships between student evaluations and factors such as academic discipline (Barnes & Barnes, 1993) and class size and level of instruction (Smith & Cranton, 1992), the results seem to indicate that this does not discount the validity of student evaluations. Rather, the results of these studies suggest that it is the interpretation of student evaluations that needs to be reconsidered. Barnes and Barnes (1993) suggest that student evaluations are more valid for rating instructors than for rating particular courses. Smith and Cranton (1992) caution that differences in student ratings in different classes are in fact reflecting students' ability to judge the quality of instruction suitable for different settings. Consequently, using ratings to compare faculty across courses may be inappropriate, but this does not negate the value of students' judgments about the quality of their instruction in particular classes.

Another common concern of faculty is that the method of administration of course evaluations may influence the outcome. Frankhouser's (1984) review of the literature claims that the more carefully constructed studies show no effect of whether students are told the evaluation data will be used for administrative purposes (e.g., promotion and tenure decisions) or for faculty use (self- improvement). His own research confirmed that global student ratings are resistant to such situational variables (Frankhouser, 1984).

One of the most frequently voiced faculty complaints about student course evaluations is that they are unduly influenced by an instructor's grading practices (Aleamoni, 1987). Reviews of the studies reflect mixed results (Aleamoni, 1987; Cashin, 1988; McKeachie, 1979). Shapiro (1990) noted that at most 9% of the variance has been accounted for by students' grades. Aleamoni (1987) suggests that the correlations reported in these studies represent a normal distribution with an average correlation of zero and a standard deviation of approximately .16. "If we plotted the correlations from these studies, we would see a nice bell-shaped curve, where the mean, median, and mode would be close to zero correlation with a standard deviation of approximately 0.16" (p. 29).

In support of the validity of student course evaluations, Marsh and Bailey (1993) evaluated student course evaluations over a thirteen year period and found that multidimensional student evaluations reliably generate profiles of instructor characteristics across both graduate and undergraduate courses.

Despite this large body of research validating students as evaluators, Rotem and Glasman's (1979) review of the use of student ratings as feedback to teachers "suggests the existence of a minimal effect at best of feedback on instructional improvement at the university level" (p. 497). The Dent and Nicholas (1980) study reported that "Most faculty (60%) hold the opinion that evaluations actually intimidate faculty and that instruction suffers" (p. 142). The same study showed that approximately 25% of the faculty felt that the information from student evaluations should not be used for promotion and tenure decisions nor for faculty merit increases.

Although we have ample evidence about faculty's attitudes toward student course evaluation, the connection between these attitudes and actual changes made in teaching behaviors or course content in response to these evaluations has not yet been reported. This study, therefore, was designed to examine faculty's attitudes toward student course evaluation and to explore how these attitudes influence the extent to which faculty use results of these evaluations to change courses. We also wanted to explore the underlying constructs of faculty attitudes toward student course evaluations by examining the variables reported in previous research. Thus, the research questions were the following:

1. Is there a relationship between faculty attitudes about the course evaluation process and the extent to which they use feedback to alter teaching behaviors?
2. Are there additional factors, such as gender or teaching experience, which affect faculty attitudes toward the student course evaluation process?
3. Are there additional factors, such as gender or teaching experience, which affect faculty use of feedback to change their teaching behaviors or course content?

Method

Materials

After a review of the research literature, areas of potential concern about student course evaluations were identified. These issues were formatted as statements to create a survey with a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The survey (Appendix A), consisting of 67 statements, was piloted and revised for clarity before being distributed.

Demographic information collected with the survey included the faculty member's department, number of years taught at the college level, rank, tenure status, experience on campus-wide or departmental promotion and tenure com-

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mit- tees, average class size, and predominant mode of teaching. This information was sought with the idea that as faculty have more experience with teaching and with student course evaluations, their attitudes toward them may change. Thus, faculty who serve on tenure and promotion committees see not only their own, but their peers' student course evaluations. This additional exposure may give them greater (or lesser) confidence in the evaluations. Faculty who are tenured may have different attitudes from those who are seeking tenure; non-tenured professors may have more concern about the evaluation process because typically it affects their gaining tenure. In some universities, non-tenured professors are required to administer student course evaluations more frequently than tenured professors.

Faculty members were asked to judge to what extent they had changed certain aspects of their teaching or of their course requirements because of student course evaluations. The specific areas questioned were a) course objectives, b) choice of textbook, c) use of supplemental readings, d) methods of evaluation, e) student workload, f) availability to students, g) course content, and h) teaching methods. Each of these areas is represented on the West Chester University required student evaluation instrument, the Student Instructional Report (Educational Testing Service, 1990), which faculty receive after each student course evaluation. Faculty were asked to evaluate the changes they had made in each of these areas as not at all, very little, moderately, or extensively.

Subjects

Four hundred seventy-five faculty teach at West Chester University, a state institution with approximately 11,000 students located in southeastern Pennsylvania. Surveys were sent to all faculty except for a random sample of fifty who had already responded to the survey in a pilot study. This purpose of the pilot study was to make certain that the survey was clear and easy to understand. The survey was revised as a result of the pilot and the original fifty respondents were not resurveyed. All non-tenured faculty are required to have the SIR administered to all classes every semester. Tenured faculty are required to have the SIR administered every five years or when they are applying for promotion.

One hundred sixty-four faculty members, approximately 39% of the sample, returned the completed survey. Sixty-three percent of the respondents were male; 88% of the respondents were Caucasian; 2.5% African-American, and 5% other. Twenty-eight percent were full professors; 37% were associate professors; 31% were assistant professors, and 1% were instructors. Twenty-nine percent of the respondents were tenured. Experience ranged from one year to 41 years.

Analyses

Means and standard deviations, as well as frequency counts, were calculated for each statement. Frequency distributions were determined for demographic data. Differences in responses were determined for different subgroups of the population, including whether the respondent was tenured, and whether the respondent had been involved with departmental or university-wide promotion and tenure committees.

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the underlying factor structure of the attitude data using a principal components analysis. A principal components factor analysis was also conducted for the change data (the questions asking to what extent faculty had changed particular elements of their teaching or of their courses because of student evaluations). Factor scores were calculated for each of the three identified factors and correlated with the Change Factor (determined from the change data) scores.[1]

Responses of different subgroups were compared to see whether there were differences in attitudes toward student course evaluations or in their use of student evaluation feedback.

Results

In general, faculty surveyed at West Chester University have a slightly more positive attitude toward student course evaluations than most previous research has reported. For example, 62.2% of those surveyed felt that students are moderately capable of evaluating the quality of their teaching, and 15.2% felt that students are extensively capable of evaluating their teaching. Forty-seven percent of the faculty surveyed feel that the evaluations have moderately reflected the quality of their teaching, and 14% feel that they have extensively reflected the quality of their teaching. When asked "to what extent have evaluations provided useful information for course planning?" 26.8% of the survey respondents marked moderately and 4.3% marked extensively. These responses indicate a much more positive attitude than previous studies (Dent & Nicholas, 1980; Rotem & Glasman, 1979; Ryan, Anderson, & Brichler, 1980) have shown. (See Table 1.)

Factor analysis of the sixty-seven survey questions resulted in three identifiable factors: 1) faculty confidence in the student course evaluation process, 2) external variables affecting the evaluation process, 3) gender of faculty and student evaluators.

Statements indicating confidence in either the students or the process loaded positively on Factor 1, and statements which indicated a lack of trust of either the students or the instrument loaded negatively on this factor. Examples of positive statements are Student evaluations provide feedback which is useful for improving instruction, and Students are good judges of the quality of instruction in a college classroom. Examples of negative statements are Students lack the experience to be good course evaluators, and Feedback from the SIRS cannot easily be translated into course improvements.

Based on prior research, it was anticipated that there would be a difference between faculty's attitude toward stu-

TABLE 1

Faculty responses to selected questions. Numbers indicate percentage of responses in each column.

QUESTION	Not at All	Very Little	Moderately	Extensively
To what extent have evaluations provided useful information for course planning?	28.7	39.0	26.8	4.3
To what extent have your evaluations accurately reflected the quality of your teaching?	13.4	24.4	47.0	14.0
To what extent do you think the SIRS instrument is capable of reflecting the quality of your teaching?	17.7	34.1	40.2	6.7
To what extent do you think students are capable of evaluating the quality of your teaching?	3.7	17.7	62.2	15.2

dents as evaluators and toward the actual instrument used. This difference did not appear in the factor analysis. Statements relating to trust in students and to trust in the instrument were both reflected by this single factor.

The second factor dealt with external variables which faculty believe affect the course evaluation process. Statements which reflected belief that class size, time of day, whether the class was required or an elective, and other variables which are outside of the actual instruction delivered in the class loaded on Factor 2. An example of a positive statement for this factor is Students getting good grades in the course are more likely to evaluate professors positively.

The third factor identified involved the gender of the instructor or the gender of the students doing the evaluations. Thus, most of the statements that involved gender issues loaded on Factor 3.

Only one underlying factor (the Change factor) resulted from the analysis of the responses to the items on the survey that asked the extent to which respondents changed aspects of their courses because of the student course evaluations.

These four factors were then used in analyzing faculty attitudes toward student course evaluations and change. Factor scores were calculated for each of the survey respondents for each of the three identified attitude factors and for the unidimensional Change factor.

Correlations between the identified factors and the change factor were determined. Factor 1 (confidence in student course evaluations) correlated positively (r=.3332; p.01) with the Change factor, and Factor 2 (external variables affecting student course evaluations) correlated negatively (r=-.1548; p.05) with the Change factor. The correlation between Factor 3 and the Change factor was not significant.

There were no significant differences between tenured and non-tenured faculty on any of the factors, nor were there significant differences between faculty of different ranks or different gender. There were also no differences between faculty who had served on promotion and tenure committees and those who had not.

As reported in Table 2, faculty seem to be more likely to change certain aspects of their teaching or their courses than others. 33.5% of the faculty surveyed indicated that they changed their teaching methods moderately or extensively as a result of the student course evaluations. 30.5% stated that they changed their tests. On the other hand, only 18.9% reported changing their availability to students, and only 21.3% reported changing the course content.

Discussion

Results of this study support the perspective that faculty's attitude toward student course evaluations may affect whether the results of those evaluations will be used to change instruction or course content. Faculty members who scored high on Factor 1 (confidence in student course evaluations) also scored high on the Change factor. High scores on the Change factor indicated that faculty reported making changes because of student evaluations. Most of the statements that loaded positively on this factor related to trust in students as evaluators and trust in the instrument used for the evaluation. Statements that loaded negatively on this factor related to lack of maturity of students to make good judgments or inability of the instrument to measure important aspects of instruction. Faculty who scored high on this factor appeared to have enough confidence in the accuracy of the information to use student course evaluations to make changes.

Faculty who scored high on the second factor (external variables affecting student course evaluations) scored lower on the Change Factor. That is, they did not report making many changes in instruction or course content as a result of the student course evaluations. They appeared to believe that student course evaluations were affected more by extraneous factors than by the quality of instruction. Statements that loaded heavily on this factor referred to the effect of time of day of course, sequence of course in curriculum, class size, expected student grade, and other external variables.

The evidence suggests, therefore, that there is a relationship between faculty attitudes about the course evaluation process and the extent to which they use feedback to alter teaching behaviors. Faculty who believe in the ability of students to be good evaluators and who believe in the validity of the instrument reported using the results to make instructional and course changes. Conversely, faculty who believe that other factors impact on the evaluations reported not using the results to make changes.

Although gender of instructor or student evaluators emerged as a third identifiable factor, it was not correlated with the Change factor at all. Also no differences were found in responses between groups based on gender, teaching experience, or experience on promotion and tenure committees for attitudes toward student course evaluations. These demographic variables do not appear to make a difference in faculty attitudes toward student course evaluations.

There were also no differences between groups based on gender, experience, or experience on promotion and tenure committees in their reported use of feedback to change teaching behaviors or course content.

It appears that faculty are more willing, or more able, to change certain aspects of their courses than others. As reported in Table 2, the most likely changes were to occur in teaching methods, tests, textbooks used, and methods of evaluation. The least likely aspects of courses for faculty to change were availability to students, course content, supplemental readings and student workload. It is possible that this differentiation reflects the power of the faculty to effect change. Thus, course content and student workload may be determined more by the curriculum than by the individual faculty member. Further research identifying the reasons for faculty changes in certain aspects of their

TABLE 2

Extent to which faculty has changed course elements as a result of student course evaluations. Numbers indicate percentage of faculty responses for each column.

Course Elements	Not at All	Very Little	Moderately	Extensively
OBJECTIVES	53.7	21.3	23.2	1.2
TEXTBOOK	53.0	18.9	21.3	6.5
SUPPLEMENTAL READINGS	51.2	25.0	18.9	3.7
TESTS	43.9	25.0	25.6	4.9
METHODS OF EVALUATION	44.5	28.0	23.8	3.0
STUDENT WORKLOAD	44.5	31.1	21.3	2.4
AVAILABILITY TO STUDENTS	57.9	22.0	17.7	1.2
COURSE CONTENT	48.8	29.3	20.1	1.2
TEACHING METHODS	38.4	25.6	32.5	3.0

courses and not in others would be fruitful.

In generalizing from this study, it is important to remember that all the faculty surveyed are from the same university and therefore may reflect attitudes particular to that institution. It is also important to note that the evaluation instrument for all the faculty is the Student Instructional Report. Attitudes of faculty who use different evaluation instruments might be different. Another possible limitation of the study is that it depends on self-report data of attitudes and of changes made. Self- report data are always subject to bias and to possible reflections of "socially acceptable" responses. In researching questions related to attitudes and change, however, self-report data are essential.

Results of this study are more sanguine than the earlier research about faculty attitudes toward student course evaluation; however, despite the extensive research that has been conducted indicating that student course evaluations are valid and reliable, many faculty still do not believe this is true. They believe that extraneous variables impact heavily on the students' ability to make judgments about their courses. These attitudes toward student course evaluation probably prevent these faculty from using the results to make changes in their teaching or in their courses.

If universities want faculty to use student course evaluations to effect instructional changes, it is imperative that they help faculty become aware of the body of research supporting their validity. Only if faculty perceive that student course evaluations are accurate will they use the feedback from them.

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NOTE: Specific information about the statistical analyses of these data is available from the authors, School of Education, West Chester University, West Chester, PA 19383.

Gail G. Bollin, David Bolton, and Sharon B. Kletzien are members of the School of Education of West Chester University, West Chester, PA. Bollin and Kletzien are in the Department of Childhood Studies and Reading. Bolton is in the Department of Counselor, Secondary, and Professional Education.

Appendix A

Statements from Course Evaluation Questionnaire

1. SIRS evaluations have a positive impact on the quality of instruction at West Chester University.
2. How a student responds to SIRS may depend on the level of difficulty of the course rather than the quality of the teaching.
3. Faculty should be trained to interpret the SIRS results.
4. Students getting poor grades in the course are more likely to evaluate professors negatively.
5. Students are good judges of the quality of instruction in a college classroom.
6. Students are likely to give more positive feedback to professors of the same gender.
7. It is appropriate to ask students to evaluate their instructors.
8. Students who are more knowledgeable in the subject matter are better judges of instruction of a course.
9. The questions on the SIRS address important instructional issues.
10. Evaluations with open-ended questions would provide better feedback to an instructor than the SIRS form.
11. In general, students respond honestly on SIRS evaluations.
12. Because SIRS are normed on a national sample, it has enhanced validity as a tool for evaluating teaching.
13. An instructor's professional rank will influence how the students will evaluate the course.
14. It is appropriate to use SIRS evaluations in promotion and tenure decisions.
15. Students' ethnic backgrounds influence their course evaluations.
16. Students need to receive instruction in how to evaluate courses.
17. Female professors are more likely to receive higher course evaluations than male professors.
18. In general, upper classmen are better judges of instruction than underclassmen.
19. Students would be less candid in responding to SIRS if the evaluations were not anonymous.
20. The time of the day a course is offered affects course evaluations.
21. Knowing a student's evaluation of a course might bias the professor's treatment of that student.
22. Professors' ethnic backgrounds have no influence on course evaluations.
23. Students would not be as candid in their evaluations if the professor being evaluated were present during the administration of the SIRS.

24. Students should have access to faculty evaluations based on the SIRS.
25. Whether a course is required or an elective impacts upon course evaluations.
26. Students getting good grades in the course are more likely to evaluate professors positively.
27. SIRS as an instrument can provide useful information for improving instruction.
28. Students are reluctant to respond negatively on course evaluations.
29. SIRS would be more effective if the results were provided to faculty immediately following the semester.
30. Students tend to rate all course instruction highly.
31. Faculty use SIRS to improve the quality of their instruction.
32. Faculty with higher student evaluations are in fact better teachers.
33. Anonymous use of open-ended comments may lead to personal criticisms rather than legitimate course evaluation.
34. Faculty who are easy graders receive higher student evaluations.
35. The accuracy of student evaluations is dependent upon the level of trust the students feel for the professor.
36. The SIRS printout is confusing.
37. Professors are more likely to use student evaluations to modify their courses if they have confidence in students as evaluators.
38. Maturity of students affects their competence as evaluators.
39. Student evaluations lack validity because they reflect students' capriciousness.
40. Because the SIRS cannot compensate for the influence of class size on the students' judgment of the quality of the course, it is not a fair means for course evaluation.
41. Course evaluations would be more accurate if they were done two years after the student took the course.
42. Faculty who use other forms of instruction besides lecture are at a disadvantage when being evaluated by SIRS.
43. The more interested a student is in the content of the course, the more accurate the student's judgment of the quality of the course will be.
44. Student evaluations are more a reflection of the reputation of the teacher rather than of the course itself.
45. Student evaluations provide feedback which is useful for improving instruction.
46. Students value the opportunity to evaluate courses.
47. Students should have the opportunity to evaluate all their courses.
48. Faculty should be required to offer course evaluations in all their courses regardless of promotion and tenure status.
49. Female students are likely to provide more accurate feedback on course evaluations than male students.

50. Faculty could gain more useful information regarding their teaching by administering course evaluations they design for individual courses rather than by using a general evaluation form.
51. Students lack the experience to be good course evaluators.
52. Faculty whose goal is to improve their course evaluations risk sacrificing the quality of their courses.
53. Male students are more likely to provide higher course evaluations than female students.
54. Teacher standards for assigning grades affects student evaluation of instruction.
55. The instructor's personality is the strongest influence on course evaluations.
56. A student's overall GPA will affect how he/she evaluates the course.
57. Anonymity allows students to be irresponsible in their course evaluations.
58. Ratings for any single course should not be used for personnel decisions.
59. How a course fits into the college curriculum, e.g. whether it is an elective, a major course, etc., should be considered in interpreting course evaluations.
60. Students fear retribution for negative course evaluations.
61. Older students are better evaluators of courses than younger students.
62. Popular professors are more likely to receive higher student evaluations.
63. Students don't appreciate the quality of instruction until after they have left the university.
64. Gender of professors has no effect upon course evaluations.
65. Minority professors are more likely to receive higher evaluations from members of their own ethnic group.
66. The level of the course influences course evaluations.
67. Feedback from the SIRS cannot easily be translated into course improvements.

By Michael T. Miller & Glenn M. Nelson

Teaching Practices of Higher Education Program Faculty: An Analysis of Selected Syllabi

The study describes various aspects of course syllabi, particularly those related to grading, faculty contact and instructional formats, and resource materials used by higher education faculty. Results revealed faculty who utilize their surrounding resources in course instruction, but who have not yet embraced the emerging technologies found in other areas of higher education.

THE CONCEPT OF HIGHER education is changing, as evidenced by the recent W. K. Kellogg Foundation initiative to re-conceptualize the land-grant model of the university (Foster, 1992). Colleges and universities are being reframed within increasingly specific mission statements, strategic plans, and state charters. Central to this theme of redirecting the role and mission of higher education is the future of higher education graduate programs. Dressel and Mayhew (1974) defined the study of higher education as being both crucial to the continued evolution of higher education and as serving the dual purpose of furthering the academic study of colleges and universities and those they impact and in preparing professionals to work within these institutions. This same duality has been explored more recently in work done by Crosson and Nelson (1986).

Higher education graduate programs have undertaken the study of many of the current issues and trends which face colleges and universities, but in the process, they have not joined in consistent self-examination (Newell & Kuh, 1989). The higher education faculty member has been discussed in many roles, such as in administrative evaluation and governance (Miller & Seagren, 1993), but fewer efforts have explored the actual activities, duties, and practices of higher education faculty. The current investigation was designed to describe the instructional practices of higher education program faculty. Specifically, the study was framed to identify how faculty provide instruction and direction to their courses by examining the syllabi they have created.

Background of the Study

A great deal of research has been conducted on the subject of college and university faculty. Investigations have found faculty members to be highly dedicated or committed to their teaching role (El-Khawas, 1991), while others have reported frequent abuses of the faculty position (Cahn, 1994). Demographic reports have described a generally older

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faculty (Geisler-Brenstein, DeMoss, Klosterman, & Richard, 1990), which when coupled with difficult budgets and changes in the current student body, may result in faculty shortages in the near future (El-Khawas, 1989).

Public perceptions of many faculties have grown increasingly suspicious, resulting in increased scrutiny by state legislatures, demands for accountability, and resistance to tuition and fee increases with claims of perceived wasted money (Edgerton, 1993). Administrators have also reported frustration with the faculty, indicating resistance to involving faculty in decision making due to apathy, lack of loyalty to their institution, and in a broad sense, an inability to hold faculty accountable for their performance in and out of the classroom (Ross, 1987). Harris (1992) went so far as to claim "worst of all are the professors, who sometimes seem to behave like Buddhas inspecting each other's navels, or dissident pedants bickering over methodology, terminology, and ideology" (p. 58).

While some are decrying the failures of the college faculty, several reports have conversely reported increases in faculty productivity and accountability at both the four- and two-year levels (El-Khawas, 1989). Additionally, many colleges and universities have added new responsibilities to the traditional teaching, research, and service expectations. In recent years, faculty have been called on to be student counselors, peer mentors and counselors, international spokespersons, publicity representatives, participants in institutional, departmental, and program-level planning, and even fund raisers (Schuster & Wheeler, 1990). There is little question that current faculty members are expected to undertake an array of activities which were not present a generation ago.

At the heart of all faculty roles, however, is the expectation of excellence in teaching. Faculty have been known to pursue virtually any means possible to excel in the classroom. Sabbaticals, conferences, additional course work, library research, participation in teaching workshops, peer counseling, and student evaluations have all been designed as efforts to improve teaching performance (Schuster & Wheeler, 1990). Little attention, however, has been focused on the course syllabus. The syllabus plays a central role in the design, implementation, and expectation of both student and teacher during the course of a semester or quarter.

Largely ignored in research, the syllabus provides a portrait of desired student performance and standards used in student assessment. Additionally, the syllabus describes both student expectations of workload and faculty performance, availability, and preparation. Syllabi in the field of higher education have varied dramatically, ranging from one page outlines of topics to be covered during a semester, more standard four-to-six page descriptions of topics to be covered with assignment descriptions, to elaborate outlines of materials to be utilized, topics to be covered, reading materials to be studied, and additional reading materials to be consulted (Miller & Nelson, 1993).

While the existing literature base may not define what constitutes quality in a syllabus, students may still hold expectations. Crump (1994) articulated these expectations to include statements of objectives and expectations of the course and grading policies, an idea also advanced by McKeachie (1986) in defining an outline for a college-level course. Additionally, syllabi can provide a less obscure description of faculty activities and expectations in a graduate level course. This fundamental concept of the syllabus as a barometer of faculty expectation and availability provides the conceptual framework for the current investigation.

Methods

As few studies exist on the format, structure, and content of higher education graduate course syllabi, higher education faculty members were asked to submit a copy of their syllabus for their primary teaching area. Participants were originally identified through the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) and several national studies utilizing various listings of higher education faculty. In all, 490 letters were mailed to faculty and administrators requesting their cooperation in the study of basic reading materials (Miller & Nelson, 1994). These letters also asked faculty and administrators to submit a copy or copies of their course syllabi for their primary teaching areas.

No effort was made to incorporate syllabi faculty deemed better than others, but rather the intent was to examine what is in use in higher education graduate courses. Syllabi submitted for study were examined in relation to five primary areas, all of which were determined to play some role in the teaching and learning process. The five areas included syllabus format, grading practices, faculty contact, instructional format, and resource materials.

Findings

Of the 490 study participants identified and involved in the study, 55 syllabi were returned for study. While the response rate for the investigation was only 11.7%, the sample was assumed to be representative of most higher education course syllabi. This assumption was made because (1) full-time faculty were noted to respond to the study rather than the at-large membership of ASHE, and (2) the exploratory nature of the study allowed for a smaller response rate.

Syllabus Format

The format or structure of syllabi has been determined to be a strong aid in the planning and implementing of a course (McKeachie, 1986). The formats of the syllabi of study varied in length, ranging from under five pages (*n*=23; 42%) to five to nine pages (*n*=11; 20%), and ten or more pages (*n*=21; 38%). Nearly all of the syllabi included a timeline for the course which included topics to be addressed (*n*=50; 91%), and a high percentage of syllabi included instructions for grading policies (*n*=37; 67%). Over one-half of the syllabi (*n*=33; 60%) included a statement of goals or specific objectives to be covered in the course. Also included in the syllabi were personal information, such as graduation year and alma mater of the instructor (*n*=22; 40%); requirements for projects to be completed in the course (*n*=20; 36%); statement of the purpose of the course (*n*=19; 34%); course description (*n*=15; 27%); suggested bibliography (*n*=13; 24%); general course requirements (*n*=12; 22%); and the instructional format of the course (*n*=12; 22%).

Grading Practices

Providing students with an understanding of the criteria in which they will be assessed and subsequently awarded a letter grade were listed in 37 (67%) of the syllabi submitted, while 18 (33%) provided no grading guidelines. Of these 18, however, several did give some direction for grading with comments such as "I shall base your grade on the quality of your seminar contributions and of your paper."

The following grading guidelines were listed on the syllabi, with the average percentage each criterion provided toward the students overall grade provided in parentheses: class participation

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(on 27 syllabi; range 10-70%; average value 22%); research or term paper (n=23; 20-70%; 36%); final exam (n=17; 20-50%; 30%); midterm exam (n=11; 10-35%; 21%); short papers, such as position papers (n=10; 15-40%; 23%); book review (n=8; 10-40%; 21%); class presentation (n=8; 5-33%; 19%); critical analysis or thought paper (n=7; 10-40%; 19%); interview or observation (n=4; 10-15%; 14%); quizzes (n=4; 10-33%; 27%); journals (n=4; 10-50%; 26%); peer grading and assessment (n=3; 10-15%; 12%); and other items, such as case studies, abstracts, and annotated bibliographies (n=8; 5-90%; 34%). Two syllabi reported an option between completion of a final exam or a research paper.

Faculty Contact

The syllabi provided a profile of the faculty member's role in teaching graduate course work. Of note are several components which compose a broad "faculty role" including number of teaching assistants or team teachers, contact information such as telephone and e-mail number and campus address, and availability to students.

In the syllabi, 68.5% (n=37) did not mention or make reference to formal office hours, while 18.5% (n=10) restricted office hours to "by appointment only." Two syllabi (3.7%) provided for instructor visitation through both listed office hours and appointments, and five syllabi (9.2%) provided listed office hours.

Six syllabi listed team teachers, one of which was a graduate teaching assistant. Nearly all syllabi (n=50; 91%) listed the instructor's name, and over one-half of those (n=30) listed an office telephone number. Of the 30, four listed a home telephone number, and three listed an e-mail address.

Instructional Format

Twelve syllabi described the instructional format or methods to be used in teaching the course. The typical syllabus included four different instructional techniques, and one syllabus included a rationale for the choice of instructional techniques. Of the 12 syllabi, nine described class or small group discussion as a major instructional method. Additionally, the lecture (n=8), class projects (n=6), and the use of case studies (n=6) were reported. Fewer instructors, however, indicated the use of group projects (n=4), simulations (n=3), guest speakers (n=3), field trips (n=2), mini-lectures (n=2), and observations, video taping students, and in-class reading and writing (all n=1).

Resource Materials

Faculty members have been noted for drawing upon a wide variety of resource materials to facilitate student learning and the successful implementation of their courses. The traditional methods of providing reading materials was the most popular identification of resource materials, with all but two (n=53; 96%) syllabi indicating that specific reading materials would be needed. On average, each syllabus required three reading materials, including books, articles, and reports; recommended three reading materials; and provided a bibliography of 17 additional reading materials. Many syllabi required one or two textbooks, and nine (16%) listed no required reading materials. Bibliography length had the greatest variance in length, ranging from nonexistence or abbreviated bibliographies, to 158, 480, and 640 bibliographic entries.

In addition to required reading in books, several syllabi indicated use of photocopy packets (n=10; 18%) available at either commercial copy centers or institutionally sponsored copy centers.

One syllabus indicated the use of a packet of articles to be shared by the class members, and seven syllabi indicated resources available on reserve in their institutions' library.

Syllabi also indicated that guest speakers would be utilized as resources in the course (*n*=6; 11%), as well as field-trips or observations (*n*=3; 5%), video tapes (*n*=2; 4%), and audio tapes (*n*=1; 2%).

Discussion

College faculty members confront a public which has grown to demand greater accountability, and higher education faculty have the potential to lead the dialogue about college teaching reform. To be successful in this effort to reform college teaching, higher education faculty must first understand and appreciate their own actions. The current investigation was designed to be a prelude to the forthcoming debate about teaching and sought to understand better the behavior of higher education faculty.

The typical syllabus was found to list the faculty member of record, course objectives or goals, an outline or schedule for the course, assignments and due dates, a grading scale, and reading materials both required and recommended for the course. Syllabi illustrated that most faculty rely on a variety of teaching and student assessment techniques, while providing students with a wide selection of readings. Additionally, faculty seemed to place a great effort into preparing syllabi, as evidenced by their length, which in turn gives the impression that faculty make an effort to teach their students about the course before it begins. This attitude of orienting students to the course through a syllabus was reinforced with in-depth explanations of how students will be assessed, how to contact faculty for additional help, and in general, provided a sense of expectations on both the part of the student and the faculty member.

Syllabi also described a group of faculty members who draw upon a wide variety of teaching techniques and resource materials. While students completing the courses described would apparently be "well read," there was a rather obvious lack of reference to any technological innovations. Aside from several faculty listing e-mail addresses, computer technologies were virtually ignored on every syllabus. While syllabi may be updated and revised throughout the operation of a course, the lack of the integration of technology as a teaching aid into virtually all higher education graduate programs was apparent.

In addition to technology, many syllabi lacked any explanation of specific course outcomes. Goals and objectives were frequently cited, giving the impression that faculty have a purpose and direction for the courses they teach, yet the idea of competencies upon completing a course was non-evident. This lack of prescribed abilities after completing a course is inconsistent with many graduate programs, such as those in the applied sciences and job training related vocational curricula, and lends credence to the current professional debate about the need for higher education programs to better prepare administrators and professionals for their current and future positions. Finally, this examination provides a starting point for those teaching college instruction and curriculum development courses to begin integrating alternative instruction and assessment activities. Trends focused on authentic assessment, including portfolios, observations, and interviews, and the trend toward computerization of course work, bulletin boards, and management information systems, all can be integrated into a higher education program where appropriate, but only if the dialogue for change is begun within the population of higher education faculty. Program directors and professional association executives should take heed from these findings and provide an outlet for updating or changing curriculum in the form of professional development seminars, course work and program inclusion, continued research, and discussion among practitioners and scholars. Only by continuing the evolution of the study of higher education can programs remain viable and vital in assisting the changes now confronting higher education.

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Dr. Michael T. Miller, Assistant Professor, Department of Administration in Higher Education, 206 Wilson Hall, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487;

Dr. Glenn M. Nelson, Associate Proofessor, Department of Administration and Policy Studies, 5S01 Forbes Quadrangle, University of Pittsburgh, Puttsburgh, PA 15260.

By Kathleen A. Shea

Partners In Process, Year Five: The University of Miami / Miami-Dade Community College Academic Development Partnership

Since 1988, the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida (UM) and Miami-Dade Community College, Miami, Florida (MDCC) have enjoyed a partnership for academic development. A cornerstone of that partnership is graduate coursework in effective community college teaching and classroom assessment which is provided by the University to Miami-Dade Community College faculty. Since its inception, over 500 Miami-Dade faculty have successfully completed the courses. These courses are now required for all Miami-Dade faculty seeking promotion or continuing contracts. This paper describes the evolution of the courses, specific course content, and barriers which were overcome. Outcomes of the partnership and future directions are also discussed.

IMPROVING undergraduate teaching and learning is on nearly everyone's "Top Ten" list for American higher education. Boyer (1990) calls for a redefinition of scholarship to include teaching. Lowman's (1984, p. *x*) aim is "not to promote 'adequate' or 'competent' instruction, but to start college teachers on the road to becoming masters of this long standing art." Higher education associations have also been central to this discussion. "Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Instruction" was published in 1987 by the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE, 1987) and a companion "Faculty Inventory" (AAHE, 1989) guides college instructors in a self-assessment of their own teaching practices. With well over 100,000 copies distributed, this is undoubtedly the most widely-used faculty self-assessment tool in all of American higher education. Angelo (1994, p. 6) has called for a refocusing of instructional improvement efforts toward "helping faculty help their students improve learning, and only indirectly on improving teaching." This "transformative" agenda redefines faculty development and instructional improvement efforts as "academic devel-

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opment" (Angelo, 1994, p. 6) and is the perspective taken in this paper.

Community colleges, in particular, have directed staff time and resources toward this goal. Most programs which aim to improve collegiate teaching and learning include various components to assist faculty in teaching improvement. These include such things as teaching awards, workshops, and/or peer consultation. The centerpiece of many programs however, is likely to be some kind of course or training in effective teaching and learning. Since 1988, the University of Miami has joined Miami-Dade Community College in a partnership as part of Miami-Dade's nationally recognized and award-winning Teaching/Learning Project. Seldin and Associates (1990), Rouche (1993), O'Bannion (1994), and Jenrette & Napoli (1994) describe this project more fully. In 1993, the College won the prestigious TIAA-CREF Hesburgh award for faculty development. While the Teaching/Learning Project at Miami-Dade Community College is comprised of several components, this paper focuses on the graduate coursework offered to Miami-Dade faculty by the University of Miami.

The University of Miami/Miami-Dade Community College Partnership

In 1987, Miami-Dade Community College undertook what is arguably the largest faculty development project within a single institution in the United States. With five campuses, 900 full-time faculty, and over 51,000 students, President Robert McCabe sought to support the faculty in improving teaching and learning at the College. Truly a faculty-designed initiative, Miami-Dade launched its Teaching/Learning Project with a needs assessment of faculty, administrators and staff, focus groups, interviews with students, and presentations by national experts in teaching and learning. Over the course of the next two years (1987-1989), Miami-Dade Community College faculty worked on various subcommittees which made recommendations concerning the scope and content of the Teaching/Learning Project. Two subcommittees, the "Learning to Learn" and "Classroom Feedback" subcommittees, worked with a broad mandate: "to develop a formal course in teaching/learning theory, including how to 'personalize' this theory across disciplines and make it MDCC-specific, with strong emphasis on application" (Miami-Dade Community College, 1989, p. 1). The committees determined that faculty would benefit from two graduate level courses:

- one focusing on the teaching/learning process (more than just a methods course in college teaching), and
- the other focusing on the emerging model of "classroom assessment." Developed by K. Patricia Cross (1993) and Thomas Angelo, classroom assessment is a "form of self-assessment for teachers that provides timely feedback on the effectiveness of their teaching....It monitors student learning as it takes place day-by-day in the classroom — informing students how well they are learning and teachers how well they are teaching."

Through the efforts of the Presidents of Miami-Dade Community College and the University of Miami, a partnership was formed between the two institutions to deliver the graduate level instruction described above to Miami-Dade Community College faculty. Representatives from the College and the University drafted outlines for two graduate courses: "Effective Teaching and Learning in the Community College," and "Research in the Classroom." These two courses became a cornerstone of the University of Miami/Miami-Dade Community College academic development partnership.

Beginning in 1988, eight sections (three each during the Fall and Spring terms, and two sections during the Summer term) were offered by the University of Miami on-site at various Miami-Dade Community College campuses. The College supported costs for tuition and textbooks for a maximum of 25 participants per section. The original rationale and outlines for the courses were discussed by Emerson and Cuevas (1992).

Top-level support for the courses has been key to their success. In a memo to College Deans and Department Chairs, President McCabe (1991) articulated the College's firm belief in the importance of this coursework:

> Twice during a period spanning nine semesters, new faculty must devote one afternoon or evening a week to a graduate course. Their obligation is to learn about the students of Miami-Dade Community College and to develop the skills necessary to teach them well. Our obligation is certainly to help them meet their obligation, but even more importantly, to establish a climate that reinforces the significance of the undertaking and elicits their enthusiastic participation.

President Edward T. Foote of the University of Miami was also committed to the partnership and supported the School of Education in offering tuition discounts to a cohort of Miami-Dade faculty who wished to seek a doctoral degree in higher education. Additionally, the University of Miami provided adjunct professor appointments to several Miami-Dade faculty to serve as instructors for the courses.

The partnership between the University of Miami and Miami-Dade Community College has been ongoing for five years now. The two courses have enrolled over 500 of the College's 900 full-time faculty as well as a number of administrators and part-time faculty. However, the numbers tell only part of the story. The remainder of this paper describes the evolution of the courses, gives details about course content, and makes observations about the future of this academic development effort.

Course Descriptions

EPS 539: Effective Teaching and Learning in the Community College

This course was designed to:

> ...provide new faculty, as well as interested existing faculty, with appropriate information and tools to maximize teaching and learning at Miami-Dade Community College...This course incorporates the collective wisdom of the skillful and experienced from within Miami-Dade: it also adds fresh and current knowledge and ideas from outside the College. The course model, taking into account the richness of our student population and the complexities of our community is unique to our needs. Because the course is innovative and has a wide range of components, the task of instruction will indeed be a challenge. (Miami-Dade Community College, 1989, p. 8)

Four basic units compose this course.

1. **The Teacher and Teaching Characteristics:** Teaching is defined in the community college context, in light of the diverse demographic, learning style preferences, and abilities of Miami-Dade students. The various roles that teachers hold vis-a-vis students are discussed, such as those described by Furman and Grasha (1983). The characteristics of Miami-Dade instructors are reviewed. This is also an opportunity for each instructor to reflect on his/her own beliefs about teaching.

2. **Learning and Learner Characteristics:** In this unit, faculty experience their own learning style preferences, and discover something about their students' preferences by using classroom assessment techniques. Various theories of

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learning are introduced drawing largely from cognitive psychology. Applications are made to community college teaching. Special efforts are made to acquaint faculty with recent, as well as established, research on learning theory. These include Piaget (1969), Bloom (1956), and the contemporary work of Sternberg (1985) and Gardner (1993). For some faculty, this serves as a good review of material previously studied; for others, it is an introduction to a field of study never encountered. As the course evolved it became apparent that it was more effective to discuss faculty as teachers *before* discussing learning theory and learner characteristics.

3. A unit on **Motivating Students** has been included. Theories of motivation such as McClelland's Need for Achievement (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1976), causal attribution (Weiner, 1974, 1979, 1980), and expectancy value theory (Atkinson, 1964; Feather, 1962) are discussed. Practical tips for motivating students are also presented, such as "101 things you can do on the first day of class."

4. **Course Planning and Preparation.** Many faculty recall having had little help in planning courses. All too often, faculty have been handed a syllabus and told, "Here...teach it." This unit allows participants to discuss the planning process, review syllabi for ideas, and share tips about course preparation. In light of the differing goals, approaches and techniques that accompany various disciplines, this unit provides an excellent opportunity for faculty to work interdisciplinarily and recognize the synergy among various courses and disciplines.

A variety of teaching and learning strategies are utilized. Lectures, demonstrations, small group discussion, video conferences, observations, and peer consultation are among the techniques used. Faculty participants are required to complete various assessment instruments, videotape a 50 minute teaching sample, and write a "synthesis paper" which incorporates a knowledge of teaching and learning theory with the faculty member's personal experience in his/her discipline and with his/her own students.

EPS 544 - Assessment in the Community College

This course is conducted in a workshop format. It is an experiential course, one in which instructors learn about classroom assessment by actually doing it. Assessment techniques are modeled in the course, and faculty are given resources to implement them in their own classes. The primary sourcebook for this course is Cross & Angelo (1993) *Classroom Assessment Techniques: a Handbook for College Faculty.*

The units of this course include:

1. **The role of Classroom Assessment Techniques** (CATS). CATS are designed to take advantage of what teachers *already know* about students in their classrooms. According to K. Patricia Cross (In Seldin & Associates, 1990, p. 125) "the ultimate goal of classroom research is to make teaching more productive — that is to reduce the gap between what is taught and what is learned." By improving feedback, both to and from the teacher, this course seeks to facilitate learning in the classroom.

2. **Using CATS to Assess Basic Skills as well as Higher Order Skills such as critical thinking and metacognition.** This unit systematically addresses how CATS can be used in a variety of ways to assess various skill levels.

3. **Summative Assessment and Testing.** Two sessions are devoted to summative assessment and testing. Summative assessment (testing) is distinguished from formative assessment (feedback). Participants learn the basics of test construction and item analysis. The notions of validity and reliability are

also reviewed. Because community colleges routinely employ standardized tests and also prepare students for state and national examinations in various professions, attention is given to those types of assessment instruments.

In this course, faculty are required to conduct assessments in their own classrooms and design a classroom research project which is carried out during the semester. During recent semesters, examples of classroom research projects by Miami-Dade Community College faculty included: "Histrionics and the Haptic Learner," "An Assessment of the Library Skills of North Campus Students," and "How to Improve the Teaching of Electrophoresis."

Importance of the Process: How the Courses Have Changed

Designing and delivering coursework for college faculty requires constant attention and continuous evaluation. The willingness to adapt, freshen, and change key elements of the courses has been a critical element of the partnership. During the past five years, the courses have changed in a number of important ways:

1. **Course content has changed** to reflect the growing knowledge about teaching and learning as well as the revolution that is sweeping higher education with respect to assessment. For example, the recent work of Gardner (1990) and Sternberg (1985) on multiple intelligences informs discussions about how students learn. Similarly, the work of K. Patricia Cross and Tom Angelo (1993) on classroom assessment has continued to evolve during the past five years, with new classroom assessment techniques being tested every day.

2. **The instructors have changed.** One of the most difficult teaching assignments may be to stand before one's colleagues as an instructor. The "students" are college faculty, many of whom hold advanced degrees in their disciplines, and may have had 20 or more years teaching experience. Since one of the courses is a course on college teaching, participants *expect* excellent teaching to be modeled. Moreover, the instructors are expected to understand the unique nature of the community college teaching environment, be experts in the course content, and relate well with their faculty colleagues. It is a demanding teaching assignment. Instructors for the courses come from the University of Miami, but not all of them are full-time University of Miami faculty. The University has provided adjunct faculty appointments for several Miami-Dade faculty and administrators who, because of their personal interest and expertise, teach one of the courses. These adjunct professors provide an important link between the university and the community college.

3. **Teaching methods have become more varied.** A variety of teaching and learning strategies are used: in-class active learning exercises, videotapes, demonstrations, small group discussion, micro-teaching demonstrations, observation, peer consultation, team approaches, classroom assessment techniques, written assignments and examinations. This is based upon the premise that diverse learning styles require varied approaches. As participants become increasingly aware of their own learning style preferences, they learn to style-flex both as learners and as teachers.

4. **Assignments have changed.** Initially the courses were heavily loaded with what some people felt was "busywork." That has been changed to fewer, but more relevant assignments. Since the courses are graduate level courses however, written assignments, papers, reports and final exams are included.

Participants are required to implement four (4) classroom assessment techniques (CATS) and write a report which describes how the CAT was used and what changes, if any, were made in their teaching as a result of the feedback received from the CAT. They also videotape one of their classes and complete a self-review checklist. This provides faculty with an opportunity to focus on an area of personal teaching growth such as lecturing to large classes, making better use of materials used in the classroom, or increasing wait time during questioning. Vignettes from the tapes may be reviewed in the course. Finally, every participant in the course writes a "synthesis" paper which draws together the information and ideas presented in the course as well as personal insights gained from the readings, discussions and/or activities of the course.

5. **The grading policy has changed from graded to a non-graded, Pass/Fail course.** When the course became required for all new faculty or those seeking continuing contract at Miami-Dade Community College, the course began to be offered on a "Pass/Fail" basis.

6. **Texts are regularly changed** to accommodate the interests of faculty who desire practical applications as well as those interested in theory and research. The current texts for the course include *Tools for Teaching* (Davis, 1993) and *Classroom Assessment Techniques* (Angelo & Cross, 1993). Other texts that may be useful include *The Craft of Teaching* (Eble, 1988); *Improving College Teaching* (Weimer, 1990); *Mastering the Techniques of Teaching* (Lowman, 1984); *Teaching Tips* (McKeachie, 1993); and *A Practical Handbook for College Teachers* (Furman & Grasha, 1983). A useful reference for research findings related to the teaching and learning processes is *Teaching and Learning in the College Classroom: A Review of the Research Literature* (McKeachie, et al., 1990). The texts are regularly supplemented with research articles on such topics as learning theory, motivation theories, and teaching strategies which are particularly relevant to specific disciplines. A bibliography is also distributed to acquaint participants with books, journals, and newsletters which focus on teaching and learning in higher education.

7. **Schedules have been changed to accommodate the Miami-Dade Community College calendar.** It took several years to work through the incompatibility of the two institutions' calendars. The University of Miami's semester would end during Miami-Dade's finals, and faculty would be faced with grading their own students' papers and taking a final examination in the University of Miami courses. Currently, the institutional calendars are generally compatible. However, courses are now offered in both the afternoons and evenings to accommodate various teaching schedules. Courses are also offered on each of the Miami-Dade campuses, since the commuting distances between campuses can be as much as 40-50 miles.

8. **Evaluation is ongoing.** Faculty and participants evaluate each course, each semester. An evaluation is conducted both by the University of Miami and Miami-Dade Community College. The instructors meet regularly with the Director of the Teaching/Learning Project and feedback is shared. These evaluations guide fine tuning and spark changes to the courses.

Barriers to be Overcome

The College introduced the graduate coursework to the faculty through a voluntary program. In addition to the two contract courses, in 1990 a cohort of faculty and administrators were offered the opportunity to pursue the doctoral degree. The initial group of faculty enroll-

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ing in the contract courses did so out of personal interest. Currently, all new faculty members and faculty seeking continuing contract must successfully complete the courses. Many faculty resisted being "forced" to enroll, and the classroom climate changed dramatically. At that juncture, the courses were offered on a "Pass/Fail" rather than a graded basis, and to a large extent, anxiety subsided.

Secondly, teaching colleagues is a very difficult assignment. Parker Palmer (1993) has noted that "whenever you get twenty-five faculty members in a room, you already know everything you need to know about good teaching." The level of expertise and experience of MDCC faculty is impressive, making it a real challenge to bring new and useful information to this group of faculty. Faculty from all disciplines and professional areas participate in the courses — from mathematicians, physicists, and radiologic technicians to dancers, art historians, and opera singers. Making learning interesting and relevant for this diverse group of learners mirrors the classroom diversity encountered each day by community college faculty.

Third, like community college students, Miami-Dade Community College faculty have heavy work-loads (five courses per semester), family responsibilities, and personal lives still filled with the business of recovering from the 1992 devastation brought by Hurricane Andrew. Adding a coursework requirement to already overloaded lives has required real commitment to teaching improvement on the part of the community college faculty. In all, Miami-Dade's faculty have risen to this challenge. A reaction paper written by a faculty participant articulated a key issue faced by community college instructors:

> One of the best ways to become more effective in the classroom is by understanding that the group ... sitting in the chairs before me are people!...However discouraging it may seem to educators, the profile of the typical community college student does not alarm me — that he or she has an eighth grade reading level, works between 30-40 hours per week, has been raised by a television culture, and has family obligations that must be met. I accept all the external factors that have formed my students....(But), how do I get them all to learn from me, from each other, for themselves?

Future Directions for the Partnership

Although continuous improvement and fine-tuning have been hallmarks of the UM/MDCC faculty development partnership to date, from time to time, a more thorough review is necessary. This ensures against the fragmentation often brought about when curriculum change is piecemeal. The opportunity for a reframing of the courses occurred in November 1993 when a faculty referendum at Miami-Dade Community College recommended that the two University of Miami contract courses be combined into one course which includes the "best components of each" (Miami-Dade Community College, 1993). A process is currently underway to review the curriculum, establish an advisory board for the courses which includes both University of Miami and Miami-Dade faculty and administrators, collaborate more effectively with the campus-based Teaching/Learning centers, cultivate new instructors and guest lecturers for the courses, and increase the use of technology in the classroom. The strategies outlined by Davis (1993) are being employed to revise the course content.

Miami-Dade Community College is also conducting a thorough evaluation of its Teaching/Learning Project — including the coursework — to ascertain the impact of the project on the College. Miami-Dade has made a clear commitment to "change the way that it does business in order to raise the status of teaching; improve teaching and learning at the college; relate all reward systems to classroom performance; and change the decision-making process such that the first priority is teaching, learning, and the classroom environment" (McCabe & Jenrette, In Seldin & Associates, 1990, p. 183).

By joining forces, both the University of Miami School of Education and Miami-Dade Community College have benefitted. During the past five years, over 500 MDCC faculty have each received approximately 75 hours of graduate instruction in teaching and learning and classroom assessment; 10 faculty have graduated with doctorates and another 30 graduates are anticipated within the next three years; several MDCC faculty have received adjunct appointments at UM; and all MDCC faculty receive a tuition discount for courses taken in the School of Education at UM. The University of Miami School of Education has benefitted from the quality of MDCC faculty who are now enrolled as students in UM graduate programs; from the national recognition that this partnership has received; and from the cost effectiveness of providing the contract courses. In addition, many opportunities for faculty collaboration between the institutions have emerged. UM School of Education faculty have been invited to participate in workshops and professional development seminars sponsored by MDCC, and conversely MDCC faculty are invited to attend UM-sponsored programs. As faculty from the two institutions become increasingly comfortable with one another, there appears to be a growing appreciation for the unique roles that community colleges and universities play. It is likely that this partnership will increase articulation between the institutions as a whole, foster increased inter-institutional understanding, and provide important opportunities for faculty collaboration.

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Kathleen A. Shea is an Assistant Professor of Educational and Psychological Studies at the University of Miami, Florida. Since 1989 she has been an instructor for the contract courses offered by the University of Miami as part of Miami-Dade Community College's Teaching/Learning Project.

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The Enquiring Tutor: Exploring the Process of Professional Learning

The following book review involves a title of interest to professional development practitioners.

The Enquiring Tutor: Exploring the Process of Professional Learning, by Stephen Rowland. London: The Falmer Press, 1993, vii + 160 pp. $29.00

Reviewed by Martha M. Ellis

The Enquiring Tutor is an exploration of the relationship between the adult learner, the facilitator (tutor), and the subject matter. The book focuses on the process of learning rather than pedagogical methodology relating to the dilemmas of adult learning. The qualitative research design employed by the author centers around field studies of Rowland's own courses and those of his colleagues in the United Kingdom. Rowland is a lecturer in education in the division of education at the University of Sheffield, U.K., where he is also director of the MEd course in teaching and learning for university lecturers.

A discussion of three approaches to teaching adults offers the theoretical foundation for the book. The didactic model, traditional lecture approach, and the exploratory model, experiential active learning approach are both rejected in favor of an interpretative model, a collaborative approach. Rowland describes the interpretative model as synthesis of the other two approaches involving three processes to learning; negotiation, reflection, and provision. Negotiation and reflection stages encompass the exploratory model while the provision stage resembles the didactic model of pedagogy. Negotiation begins the sequence of learning as decisions are made by the student and tutor as to what is to be studied and what are the procedures or ground rules for the learning process. Negotiation allows the student to own the activity and requires the tutor to accept the student's understanding of the learning. The reflection stage promotes the tutor as a reflective agent providing feedback as the student tackles the study or learning project. The student employs critical thinking skills when responding to the tutor's feedback. The provision stage allows the student to delegate to the tutor some responsibility for providing expertise and knowledge to the student. The author views knowledge as a "social construction" which is subjective in nature, not individualistic, and "recognizes the importance of the critical engagement of individuals as they struggle to develop shared meaning" (p.32).

In the chapters that follow, Rowland discusses components of the interpretive model in more detail, especially the negotiation aspect. At the heart of the negotiation dilemma is the power relationship between student and tutor. He proposes that empowering the student develops a more effective learning climate. Rowland argues, through a case study and discussion, that this empowerment and freedom causes a dichotomy of

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anxiety and excitement for both the student and tutor. The shifts in the power relationship are examined including what prompts the changes, how to resolve the tension, the role of student reflection in this process and ways the tutor can promote the change in power.

The book concludes by exploring evaluation and assessment. Rowland proposes that student opinions have a central place in any course evaluation. He documents several approaches to obtaining student evaluations that move beyond static data and involve more than a checklist of Likert scale instrumentation. The author also suggests that students take more responsibility for assessing their own learning and skills. If indeed the tutor and student have formed a collaborative relationship in the learning process, the assessment of student learning must also be collaborative.

The Enquiring Tutor provides a nice qualitative approach to understanding adult professional education. The explanation of the models of pedagogy is succinct and helpful. The interpretive approach synthesizes many of the concepts permeating higher education including classroom assessment, empowerment, student-centered, collaborative learning, and even total quality management. The model may be more palatable to educators than the corporate jargon being promoted. The case studies are most interesting and the field notes provide additional insight into the issues being discussed. The emphasis on values, relationships, and learning processes is refreshing.

The most glaring weakness of the work centers around the degradation of any type of quantitative research measures to validate competencies, student outcomes, evaluations, or the models themselves. By including quantitative studies from other researchers, Rowland could have strengthened his arguments. Instead, the reader is led to believe that quantitative studies are of little value in understanding students and their learning processes. Even if learning is more about relationships than pedagogical methods, quantitative studies can be used to research the theory.

Unfortunately, the book has a limited audience. The applicability to undergraduate of K-12 education is very limited. The large university class or the commuter community college would not benefit from most of the information within the text. Although I gained a few ideas for my classes, most of the techniques outlined would be more appropriate for graduate education. Rowland does acknowledge this point himself in describing the enquiry process as tailored more for the professional worker in professional courses. Continuing education, staff development, and corporate facilitators could benefit from the approaches he discusses. In an era in which most professional development is team based and collaborative, trainers and facilitators will find his approach insightful.

Martha Ellis is Professor of Psychology and Director of Staff, Program and Organization Development at Collin County Community College, McKinney, Texas.

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By Barbara J. Millis & Edwin G. Sapp

Coaching Faculty to Succeed on Interactive Television Networks

This article examines ways that faculty developers can coach faculty accustomed to "traditional" class settings to succeed on interactive television networks. Coaching, with both its motivational and practical aspects, involves helping faculty learn to plan, deliver, manage, and evaluate lessons offered in a multimedia, long-distance environment. It also involves, whenever possible, a team approach.

THE CHALLENGES FACED by faculty developers have grown incrementally as new technologies proliferate. Increasingly, skittish faculty are expected to embrace innovations related to computers, video, and telecommunications. Even those who joyously "surf the net" and rush to the latest hardware and software, including networked electronic classrooms, often find themselves unprepared to adapt their teaching strategies and course materials to capitalize on an "enriched" environment. Helping faculty succeed with interactive video television poses particular challenges. For one thing, the technological medium is complex with a multimedia classroom connected to as many as four remote sites. The administrative logistics—including exchanging papers, administering examinations, and helping students individually—further complicate the extended academic playing field. Additionally, Reed and Woodruff (1995) point out that the promise of expanded classroom experience can be compromised by the fact that compressed video "amplifies poor teaching styles and strategies" (p. 2). Compressed video, like other emerging technologies, goes far beyond permitting a teacher to use a new supporting tool—it becomes a completely new environment requiring faculty members to readjust what Moran (1993) calls their "rhythms, mythologies, and routines of practice" (p. 63).

Interactive Television—Understanding the Challenge

As Rogers (1995b) amplifies, "distance education" assumes many guises, including the time-honored correspondence course, and involves many issues. For example, Stubbs and Burnham (1990) point out that, "There appears to be a rift in the literature between distance educators who insist that the independence of the learner from time and place is most important, and those who believe that interaction between students and teachers is most vital" (p. 28). Interactive television, with all its challenges, falls squarely in the latter camp.

An interactive video network (IVN) has been described as "a two-way multimedia communications system that uses

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'compression' technology to transmit both sound and images (moving and still) between specially designed and equipped classroom sites. Instructors and students at two or more locations can see, hear, and interact with one another through the use of cameras, microphones, and monitors that are connected to digital telephone lines for transmission" (Office of Instructional Development, University of Maryland University College, p. 7). Because of the compression of the digitized images over telephone lines, a cost-effective practice, some distortion and delay in motion result. Initially, therefore, this medium can be disconcerting for both students and faculty. Viewings are not simultaneous, via split screens: each site can gain dominance—and the screen—by vocalizations.

Additionally, most interactive video classrooms offer many multi-media options. A television camera mounted face-down on a stand transmits close-ups of documents and pictures. The most commonly used document camera is called an "Elmo." Basic skills include turning it on and off, zooming the lens up and down, and preparing materials that fit a 3 by 4 aspect ratio (e.g., three inches by four inches or any proportional variation).

Faculty can also link a computer to the Elmo, transmitting the computer screen image to the sites using word processing/presentation packages, such as WordPerfect, MS Word, PowerPoint, or Harvard Graphics, to enhance their classroom options. IVN faculty can show videos, play audiotapes, and even go "on-line," projecting the World Wide Web.

Many other technological supports can also augment an IVN classroom. Many faculty routinely interact individually with students via telephone (often during classroom breaks), FAX transmissions, and E-mail. Thus, the IVN classroom offers a world of possibilities, possibilities that can overwhelm the majority of faculty who do not consider themselves "techies." Faculty developers can offer time-saving advice and coaching that will help faculty leap the technological barricades far more rapidly. They can, as Rutherford and Grana (1995) note, help faculty "renovate attitudes, refurbish frayed pedagogy, and rewire old circuits to accommodate all these technologically inspired changes" (p. 82).

Coaching Faculty to Excel in IVN Classrooms

A team approach furthers IVN success. Because IVN systems are so complex, an ideal support team is composed of: (a) the faculty developer, whose primary emphasis will be pedagogical; (b) the technology experts, who may include a "trainer," often with an instructional development background; a day-to-day technical director, who coordinates each broadcast; and the site technicians, who ensure smooth communications from remote sites; and (c) IVN administrators, who handle essential logistical details such as courier services and reproduction and/or distribution of handout materials, examinations, and student evaluations.

Faculty need to be connected to as much coordinated support as possible. This support typically begins with a structured training program to help faculty learn the "ins" and "outs," "dos" and "don'ts" of teaching in a different environment. Such courses focus on both competence and confidence levels. Ideally, faculty will learn how the basic equipment operates; how to create effective instructional materials, including Elmo projections; how to prepare carefully scripted lesson plans; how to manage multi-site interactions and encourage participation by all students; how to coordinate the logistics of distance education, including timely feedback to students; how to maximize presentation skills, including appearance and instructional pacing; and how to anticipate and overcome the inevitable technical failures. Training typically offers a theoretical overview, often presented through the use of troubleshooting case studies. The emphasis remains always practical, however, with hands-on, experiential learning. Faculty members must be up-front and active, manipulating the multimedia options, interacting with IVN personnel or other faculty trainees posing as students at remote sites, and smiling into the camera. Training at University of Maryland University College (UMUC) concludes, for example, with a minipresentation integrating all elements of the IVN environment. Faculty select their own topic. Usually, their topics are course-related, building confidence as an upcoming classroom preparation is completed. In at least one case, however, a creative historian strayed from the ivory tower just before the winter holidays to offer a "How-To-Wrap-a-Present" demonstration, complete with diagrams and gaily decorated props. During this minipresentation, faculty must make at least one camera view switch; create at least two visuals for the Elmo or for slide storage; preplan interaction with a remote site; and dress effectively.

Faculty developers do not need to become proficient on the technological equipment to coach faculty, but we need to be aware of the possibilities it offers. For example, a faculty member who fails to develop adequate rapport with students may need to smile more, to request more facial close-ups, or to maintain better eye contact with students at remote sites. (Interesting enough, when faculty stare directly into the local camera, they may appear to be looking over the heads of students seated at tables at the remote sites.) If a faculty member opts to use a complex, time-consuming PowerPoint presentation for a relatively simple point, we could suggest using dark marking pens on the whiteboard available in most IVN classrooms or even a visual aid projected through the Elmo. We must be attuned to the complexity of the technological options as well as to the pedagogical soundness of the chosen activities and assignments.

When coaching, we need to relate the new tasks to ones that faculty have already mastered. For example, when introducing the Elmo, we can emphasize that this technical gadget is no different than the conventional, bulb-lit overhead projector which also must be turned on, focused, and fed new sheets of data as various points are made. The same brain-eye-hand coordination that makes a teacher adept at using the overhead projector makes Elmo operation a success. Similarly, we can reassure faculty that they may not necessarily have to jettison years of clippings, handouts, stories, and well-timed delays that have elicited appropriate student learning responses. However, we don't want faculty to respond with a complacent: "I don't want to change anything I'm doing . . . I just want to push the back wall of the classroom back 1,000 miles" (cited in Rogers, 1995a).

Identifying the kinds of support IVN faculty need—whether motivational/attitudinal, logistical, pedagogical—can help faculty developers define their own roles more clearly. Too often, faculty developers and technology experts remain unconnected, a fact that seriously undermines teaching enhancement efforts. Despite our own reservations and hesitancies about technology, we should overtly attempt to build bridges among all individuals supporting faculty, regardless of the nature of the delivery system. We should help faculty learn to value the benefits of using an IVN classroom as opposed to counting the costs. We should also encourage faculty members to communicate with other IVN faculty and to share instructional objectives and desired effects with the technological team. Although we may appropriately get involved in logistical and technical issues, most of our efforts will focus on sound pedagogical practices in an IVN environment. Thus, our efforts, as in more traditional classroom-based teaching, will focus on broad areas of concern: (a) course planning, both long and short-term; (b) delivery, which is obviously related to advance planning; (c) classroom management, including logistical issues such as returning papers to distant students, and (d) evaluation and feedback.

Course Planning for IVN Classrooms

Planning is the most important critical aspect of IVN success. Rutherford and Grana (1995) recommend that faculty be given at least six months of planning time before stepping in front of an IVN camera (p. 85). Milburn (January, 1995) estimates that on average faculty members devote 50-75% of their committed IVN time to planning and preparation, both long and short-term.

Before entering an IVN studio, faculty must be coached to develop a long-term syllabus that "works" for the IVN environment. It must be explicit, because there is a high probability that nontraditional students taking courses at remote sites are initially not sophisticated learners; furthermore, a majority of them will likely be adults with competing demands on their time. The learning objectives, course requirements, due dates, and "logistical" considerations such as delivering and receiving assigned work, must be clearly spelled out.

When planning course requirements, faculty must be aware of the pacing required for an IVN course. The "less is better" adage has always prompted faculty developers to encourage faculty to pare down course coverage, without diminishing expectations, as they build in interactive, experiential learning experiences. Never is this adage more valid. Faculty must be coached to help students "get it"—their key course content—despite the fact that they may never see students face-to-face and despite the fact that technical glitches can potentially wipe out critically important presentations.

Faculty must also be coached to prepare for each immediate class session. The idea of "scripting" will be foreign to many conscientious faculty who may be unprepared for the enormous technological and logistical demands of an IVN environment. A script helps the faculty member and the technician coordinate details in advance. Rehearsals are essential, at least during a faculty member's first tentative ventures on IVN. Beyond deciding on the specific course content for each lesson, faculty must consider pedagogical approaches (lectures, demonstrations, structured group work, case studies, interviews) that vary the educational format and allow for the interactions that are a strength of this technology. The length of the session will dictate many of the pedagogical strategies.

Planning includes the advance work needed to prepare and then display the visual aids that enhance learning at a distance. Props, such as live ferns for a botany lesson or a bar graph for an economics course, add interest and also underscore learning principles. Arranging these visual aids on a large table within easy reach is essential. On television every second counts, and students will not appreciate the "down time" while a faculty member fumbles through her briefcase. Faculty must also share their course plans—preferably through a script—with the technical director so he or she can maximize the camera options by switching appropriately to remote sites or by zooming for close-ups of the whiteboard or a smiling faculty face. To facilitate these camera movements, faculty in IVN classrooms must be "team players" who keep the technical staff closely involved in the academic content delivery process.

We should emphasize to faculty that a good sense of timing is also part of the planning process. Verbal delivery between sites has built in delays, so faculty have to learn to adjust syllabi and expectations. They must build in opportunities for questions and responses, allowing for the time lag on many systems. As in traditional class settings, breaks should be scheduled every 50-60 minutes: faculty often use them for personal telephone conferencing with students. Timing extends to paper return as well, when the post office or a courier comes between the teacher and some portion of the students. Faculty must realize that there will sometimes be unavoidable delays.

Contingency planning thus is also essential. Since an interactive video network depends on the complex interaction of multiple operations to deliver its signals (e.g., equipment working, phone lines connected, power present), there will be occasional interruptions, more commonly labeled "crashes." Consequently, teachers must have prepared alternate work for students at remote sites who can no longer see and hear them and be flexible in interposing "Plan B." Student site leaders, for example, can distribute pre-positioned, on-site supplementary materials. We can remind faculty, however, that these scenarios are no different than trying to teach in the conventional classroom during a power outage or transferring to the blackboard when the last bulb in the overhead projector blows.

Dressing for the medium also requires planning. Although serving as a fashion consultant rarely appears on a faculty developer's CV, we can coach instructors to present a warm, professional appearance on the screen. Solids and pastels are "in;" checks and variegated hues are "out." Whites "burn" on the screen, casting five o'clock shadows where no shadow really lurks. Stripes, plaids, paisleys, and patterns create a kaleidoscope of scrambled (but colorful) images as an instructor moves, making it difficult for students to concentrate on the course content. Faculty should avoid yellows, reds, and blacks. They should also shed tinkling jewelry and extravagant gestures. Shedding pounds can also be a concern to some faculty who suddenly discover that they appear 20 pounds heavier on television. Short of a crash diet, faculty can try single-colored suits with long jackets to hide bulges. Similarly, they will want to control "bulging" hair by opting for sculpted, clean cuts. The most helpful fashion advice we can offer is to remind faculty to wear a smile.

Delivering Lessons in IVN Classrooms

Smiling can carry faculty a long way, even past jerky deliveries or technical failures. Faculty developers need to encourage IVN instructors—regardless of their inner turmoil—to relax and appear confident and prepared on camera. Relaxation, however, does not suggest passivity. IVN requires enormously high energy levels. The high energy, however, should be channeled into enthusiastic, but concentrated presentations. Faculty should not move quickly or use exaggerated gestures. Because of the transmission delay, rapid movement comes across like a squirrel's accentuated, almost still-frame animation. If the teacher loves to pace, he or she will quickly discover how annoying that habit can be (and probably has been all along in the conventional classroom). Although motions must be more limited, the teacher can vary stand-

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ing, writing on the whiteboard, or using the Elmo. We should discourage sitting.

Delivery also extends to the clarity of the presentation, including voice projection. Although most faculty developers are probably not comfortable as voice coaches, we can alert faculty to incoherent mumbles and encourage them to breath deeply and project. We can also coach them to "chunk" ideas, remembering that most students, like other human beings, can recall only up to seven words and ideas at a time, a fact that telephone companies have always known.

Faculty must be coached to prepare and employ effective visual aids, which, as Callahan (1995) notes, can serve as effective transitions. The KISS principle (Keep It Simple, Stupid) works with graphics in particular. We can share with faculty a few basic design principles and then help them evaluate the results. A graphics software package, such as PowerPoint or Harvard Graphics, can enhance their skills. Clean, crisp graphics usually contain no more than 12-20 words clearly arranged in no more than six lines. Large font sizes, 44-48-54, show up clearly on the IVN monitors. The Elmo does not like white. A dark blue background with yellow letters provides an effective, readable combination. Graphics should usually be landscaped, with a 3 X 4 unit area, allowing for a border area of 10%. Students, particularly those at remote sites, must be able to see the visual aids.

The importance of involving students at all sites cannot be overemphasized. The UMUC IVN Faculty Guide reminds instructors:

> Although technology can overcome physical distance, it can also generate psychological distance. One of the challenges for you as an instructor in an IVN class will be to encourage interaction between yourself and your students—and, when appropriate, among students—to generate their active participation in the class, promote communication, and motivate them to achieve academically. (p. 12)

Perhaps the easiest way to "connect" students, particularly those at remote sites, is to call on them by name. Large name cards during the first few weeks of class can help instructors and students become acquainted. To provide the sense of connection that creates the "blended family" described by Rutherford and Grana (1994), we can encourage faculty to create interactive, site-to-site activities that ask students to respond to one another. Faculty can also use other creative ways—not always pedagogical—to help off-site students feel included. For example, a UMUC IVN lecturer routinely welcomes his students at Shady Grove, Maryland, by playing a rousing audiotape of The Kingston Trio's "Shady Grove, My Little Love," recorded in the late 1950s. Hearing their theme song during the roll call helps students feel "special" and connected.

Such bonding tactics reduce hurt feelings, jealousies, and frustrations when the mail doesn't bring off-site students the graded papers they see in the hands of students at the transmitting site. During classroom observations, faculty developers can coach instructors to concentrate on equal treatment, avoiding an obvious focus on the local classroom versus the remote sites—or vice versa. Students should never feel that a faculty member is "playing favorites." We can also encourage the faculty member to take the show on the road by transmitting from each of the remote sites, a practice which contributes toward student-faculty rapport. Rapport can also be enhanced through careful classroom management techniques.

Managing "Logistics" in IVN Classrooms

The logistics of managing an IVN extended classroom include day-to-day etiquette as well as careful detail to the "paper chase." Etiquette often involves helping students understand the proper use of the IVN system. For example, students should attentively wait until others have stopped talking before trying to compete for the camera and audio dominance. They should remember to mute their microphones so that local conversations—hopefully kept to a minimum, but sometimes needed for clarification—do not clutter the IVN compressed waves. Faculty should be coached to correct for dominance by a single site or even a single student, just as they would do in a traditional classroom. Similarly, they should listen carefully to student contributions, complimenting students when they do a particularly good job and watching for other questions or comments. Both faculty developers and the instructor can watch for clues, such as body language, that may suggest problems or positive attitudes.

Callahan (1995) has an excellent chapter on the "paper chase," with advice to faculty on how to keep themselves and the students, however remote, feeling organized and energized. Some of her suggestions include: (1) Don't rush in and out of the courier office without leaving yourself time to log papers in and out; (2) Use routing slips with stapled manuscripts; (3) Pay close attention to examination procedures and security; (4) Empty your mailbox often; (5) Return graded papers promptly; (6) Allay fears by letting students know when papers have been received and when they have been placed in the courier system; (7) Insist that students type papers, retaining a copy; (8) Keep meticulous records in your gradebook; (9) Develop a system that works for you, keeping communication channels open; (10) Be flexible, but try to stick to the well-organized schedule articulated in your course syllabus. (pp. 10-12) All these practices will not only increase efficiency, but will also go a long way toward encouraging faculty members to be fair and impartial evaluators. Evaluation, in fact, is a key IVN responsibility.

Evaluating Objectively in IVN Classrooms

Most faculty are comfortable with traditional methods of evaluating students. Such methods—including quizzes, paper assignments, and exams—work well with IVN students, even given the delays mandated by time and distance. But we must remind faculty that a two-way feedback system can help both faculty and students. Students will have the reassurance of knowing how they are doing in the class. Faculty can determine not only students' progress toward the learning objectives, but also their attitudes toward the course. It is particularly important for faculty to know what is going right and wrong. As faculty developers, we can coach faculty to use and respond to classroom assessment techniques, such as "Background Probes," "Focused Listing," "Minute Papers," and the "Muddiest Point" (Angelo & Cross, 1993). We can also encourage them to garner feedback from written essays, self-evaluations, colleague evaluations, and class participation. It is important to evaluate early and often.

Most IVN administrators take evaluation very seriously. IVN is a costly system: institutions need to know that their money is well-spent. They will typically survey students and faculty and sit in on IVN classes. Virtually all such formal evaluations attempt to separate individual teachers and their expertise from the technicalities of the system itself. Students may love an instructor, for example, but dislike the enforced distance of an IVN network and its frequent "crashes." It is difficult, though, as Yeats has noted, "to separate the dancer from the dance." Faculty developers are sometimes invited to participate in this evaluation process.

New Roles for Faculty Developers

Faculty developers, like the faculty we coach, will face new challenges. Besides helping faculty overcome entrenched fears of technology, we may find ourselves assuming new roles far more complex than those of a nurturing cheerleader. Besides becoming comfortable—if not proficient—with the technology ourselves, we may find ourselves working hand-in-glove with technical personnel. This may widen our spheres of influences and interest as we become involved in theoretical, practical, and discovery-based discussions about teaching, learning, and technology.

Most of us discover that the IVN classroom environment fosters much more than a teacher adapting old methods to new tools. Ultimately, the medium evokes a change that is greater than the sum of its parts. As Nesbit (1992) wrote:

> Virtually everyone (who participated in a two-way interactive television-ITV-pilot project in Western Kentucky) learned. . . that the ITV classroom is not a traditional classroom with TV monitors, cameras, and microphones installed. It was something very different. (p. 76)

The most obvious difference is the change in faculty that occurs as an IVN course progresses. The instructor we coach becomes not only a facilitator—a role still novel to some hard-line "traditionalists,"—but he or she also blossoms as part of a team. The instructor, the site technicians, and the students work together in this new environment and all "own" a part of the learning that takes place. Learning for everyone seems somehow more intense and certainly more student-centered.

Thus, for faculty developers often the most gratifying result of involvement with IVN is this profound and obvious effect on faculty members, particularly if the faculty developer/coach encourages reflective changes. Typical comments, gathered several months after the training and after these teachers are busily teaching their own IVN sections of Favorite Course 301, suggest that the process forced the faculty member to undertake a complete reflective reevaluation of their teaching techniques and objectives. As Gilbert (1995) suggests, faculty and faculty developers discover "insights that help us rethink what we do in "nondistant" education—with or without technology" (p. 3). New converts to the IVN system often echo one of the author's sentiments: "For the first time in 25 years I have totally reviewed my courses with 'new eyes.' My delivery is now more effective, not only on television, but in the conventional classroom as well."

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Barbara Millis, who has a Ph.D. in English literature from Florida State University, is Associate Director for Faculty Development at the United States Air Force Academy. Previously, she was Assistant Dean Faculty Development at University of Maryland University College (UMUC) where she became involved with IVN. Other areas of expertise include cooperative learning, classroom observations, effective syllabus construction, classroom assessment, and the teaching portfolio.

Ed Sapp has a JD and BA earned at the University of North Carolina and a MLA (Master in English Literature) from Johns Hopkins. He is an adjunct professor of business communication and technical writing with the University of Maryland University College (UMUC). Bringing to the students a 29-year writing career with the federal government, including two years with the United States Congress and seven years as a faculty developer in government training programs, Ed recently taught technical and business writing courses via both IVN and instructional television enhanced by computer conferencing.

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By Thomas C. Reber

Giving Voice to the Silent Ones: Electronic Discussion in a College Literature Course

Incorporating electronic discussion into college courses can increase the number of students taking an active part in class discussion and facilitate peer instruction. In this article, the benefits of using electronic discussion in a literature class are explained.

INCREASING STUDENTS' participation in classroom discussion is a perennial goal of many college instructors. Experienced instructors are usually familiar with the phenomenon of "quiet" or passive students—those who, while intellectually capable, remain silent during class discussion because they are shy, feel that their thoughts and opinions are less important than others', or are intimidated by the perceived authority of the teacher. Whatever the specific reason, the class does not have the benefit of hearing the thoughts of these quiet students. One vehicle for increasing the participation of such students is electronic discussion, a medium which can seem less daunting to them than traditional oral discussion because it is less confrontational, not requiring direct "face-to-face" interaction with their classmates. Although the most desirable solution would be that students overcome their reticence and feel comfortable about participating in all kinds of discussion, until that ideal is achieved, instructors can employ electronic discussion as a tool for increasing the number of student voices in the classroom. In addition to making it easier for reticent students to express their ideas, electronic discussion promotes active learning by all students, because it gives them strong control over the direction of class discussion.

In the Spring Semester of 1993, I introduced electronic discussion into "Science Fiction," an undergraduate course I teach at Canisius College. My students used the software program *Aspects*, published by Group Logic, Inc., to discuss the books and films assigned in the course. Our experience with electronic discussion was very positive. More students participated in this kind of discussion than normally would in oral discussion, and many reported on course evaluations that using *Aspects* had been an especially valuable part of the course. For other teachers who might be interested in incorporating electronic discussion into their own courses, I would like to describe our experience with this method of instruction, explain the benefits we gained from using it, and recount some adjustments we had to make as we began to work in this new medium.

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Description of Electronic Discussion Sessions

I employed the *Aspects* program in two sections of Science Fiction, each of which had an enrollment of 32 students. The classes met three times a week for 50-minute sessions. I arranged for the classes to meet for one session each week in a classroom of networked Macintosh IIvx computers on which *Aspects* had been installed. Thus, the students spent about one-third of the total class time for the semester engaging in electronic discussion.

While I wish to focus mainly on the effects of using *Aspects* rather than on its technical facets, some explanation of the features of the program is essential for understanding these effects. *Aspects* is a collaborative writing program intended mainly to allow several people on a computer network to compose or revise a document at the same time. Up to 16 people can work on a document simultaneously. For electronic discussion, though, the most important part of the program is a separate feature called the "Chat Box," a window which appears on the computer screen below the main document. The purpose of the Chat Box is to allow users to make comments to each other without altering the main document. The users may discuss possible changes in the main document before actually making them, or engage in conversation only indirectly related to that document. By expanding the Chat Box window and working in it instead of in the "main" document, one can convert the *Aspects* collaborative writing program into an effective vehicle for electronic discussion. After my students and I accomplished this conversion, we found that we possessed a piece of software that was easy to learn and served our purposes well.[1]

Electronic discussion in the *Aspects* Chat Box takes place instantaneously. That is, when one student sends a comment to the discussion group, everyone in the group receives it immediately. It appears on everyone's computer screen with the sender's name displayed in bold type at the beginning. The speed with which users' comments appear on each other's screens can be both impressive and slightly disorienting, especially when many students are participating in a discussion. To keep the conversations going at a pace which would be manageable for everyone, I limited the number of people in each discussion group, eventually finding that groups of fewer than 10 persons worked best. Thus, during a given class session, the 32 students would be distributed among three or four discussion groups, known in *Aspects* as "conferences." Each conference was given a general question related to the novel, short story, or film we were studying, and a moderator was assigned for each conference whose duties were to set up the conference—a fairly simple matter—and to help keep the other students on the topic. Because the students themselves decided which conference to join, they had considerable control over what question they would be discussing and who their on-line interlocutors would be.

Both classes produced interesting and copious comments during their *Aspects* discussions. After the first few weeks of class, I gave the students the opportunity to vote on whether they wanted to continue using electronic discussion or to use the time we had been devoting to that activity for traditional oral discussion. Each class voted overwhelmingly for the former—by margins of 25-1 and 24-6—even though some students had to undergo the inconvenience of sharing a computer with another student, since we had 32 students in each class and only 26 computers. The vote was a solid endorsement by the students of the value of electronic discussion as a learning tool.

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[1] Recognizing that many instructors wish to use the *Aspects* program for electronic discussion as I did, Group Logic has made changes in the most recent version of the program which make expanding the Chat Box easier.

A Less Dominant Role for the Teacher

As Michael Spitzer has noted, students working in a computer classroom tend to focus less on the teacher as a central authority than they do in a traditional classroom:

> In a traditional class, the teacher is clearly in command. The students are arrayed in rows, facing the teacher, who controls discussion, directing comments to the class or receiving and redirecting comments from students. On a network, teachers must yield power; their comments have no more prominence than those of the students, and the reduction in authority translates into increased empowerment for students. (Spitzer, 1990, p. 59)

My role in the *Aspects* discussion sessions was mainly to provide a beginning topic for each of the conferences and then get out of the way. While I would "sample" the discussions in the conferences by joining them for a few minutes at a time, I generally let the moderators and other participants determine the specific directions the discussions would take. My reduced status as central authority figure was made humorously apparent during one of our lab sessions early in the semester. After I joined a conference in the usual way, identifying myself, under our standard naming convention, as "Tom R.," one student quickly queried his fellow conferees, "Who's Tom R.?" to which another student dutifully responded, "Tom R. is the BOSS!!!" Although the questioning student probably could have figured out by himself who "Tom R." was if he had taken more time to think, his query illustrated that for him my "voice" and my authority as instructor had receded into the background. He had become used to learning by talking with his classmates rather than passively receiving "the truth" from his academic "boss."

More Voices in Class Discussion

Both the transcripts from our *Aspects* conferences and the student course evaluations show that many students participated more fully in the electronic discussions than they would have in traditional oral discussions. The sheer volume of comments produced in the former indicates this increased participation. A 50-minute class period typically yielded printed transcripts of 12-18 pages of single-spaced, 12-point type, the total product of three or four discussion groups. On one especially verbose day, a class produced 25 pages. Even when one takes into account some "extraneous" comments like the phatic conversation that frequently took place when the groups began their sessions, the transcripts show that more "talk" about our science fiction texts occurred on the computers than would occur in oral discussion. The transcripts not only provided evidence of increased student participation but also gave me interesting material for subsequent oral discussions. After each *Aspects* session, I would review the transcripts of the conferences and select especially insightful or provocative comments to read to the class at the next meeting, making them starting points for our oral discussion and often asking the students who had made the comments to elaborate upon them. Through this practice I was sometimes able to present the ideas of some of the more shy students to the whole class, since these students often produced some of the most thoughtful comments during our computer sessions.

Among the many students who made positive remarks about our *Aspects* sessions in the course evaluations were several who specifically stated that they had spoken out more in electronic discussion than they would have in oral discussion. One opined, "*Aspects* was great—it provided a means for students (especially shy ones) to express their opinions and ideas openly. . . ." Another said that the electronic sessions "were less formal than in-class speaking," and remarked, "I was able to get my thoughts across more smoothly compared to in-class discussions (nervousness)." A third declared,

> Using electronic discussion enhanced this course. It allowed everyone a voice. We got to pick a conference, stick around, or join another. As students, this was a great confidence builder. What we said seemed valuable.

Making the Transition to Electronic Discussion: Issues for Teacher and Students

Although most students saw electronic discussion as a valuable part of the course, both they and I had had to learn how to use this new medium effectively. The first step in this learning process for me had been to attend a workshop on *Aspects* many months before my Science Fiction classes began. In addition, I had become more familiar with the program by using a demonstration copy of it on my office computer and then by trying out the program on multiple computers after it had been installed in our lab. These experiences with the program showed me that it could serve my pedagogical purposes; however, no matter how familiar I became with the program, I could not predict exactly what problems might arise when it was employed in an entire class of students.

Even though *Aspects* is an easy program to learn, I estimated that it would take about three class sessions in the computer lab for all of the students to achieve at least minimal competence in using it. During these three sessions we would be employing the program for the substantive work of the course—discussing Mary Shelley's novel *Frankenstein*, for instance—but I expected that I would also be spending much of my time training students in the operation of the program itself. It turned out that some especially computer-literate students really needed only one session of experience with *Aspects* to use it proficiently, while novice computer users needed two to three sessions. The novices had to learn not only how to operate *Aspects* but also how to operate a Macintosh computer—how to use a mouse, for example, and how to open and manipulate windows. Finding the right pace of instruction, then, was a matter of balancing the needs of these novices and the needs of the expert users. The main problem, of course, was that while I was teaching the former how to operate the program, the latter, having already mastered it, might become bored. One way in which I tried to keep the expert users actively involved in these early lab sessions was to assign them to be moderators of the conferences and to request that other students direct their questions about operating the computers to them as well as to me. That way, the expert users became assistant teachers.

In addition to learning how to operate the program, the students had to adjust to the different kind of discourse which takes place in electronic discussion. The sheer speed with which comments appear on the screen during an *Aspects* session can be somewhat intimidating, especially to a student who types slowly. By the time such a student finishes typing a comment on a topic and sends it to the group, the conversation

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may have moved on to a different topic, leaving that student behind. We alleviated this problem by keeping the discussion groups small (fewer than ten students), so that fewer students would be sending comments at any given time. It also helped that some of the slower typists seemed to pick up speed as the semester progressed. For instance, one student who had at first been especially worried that he would not be able to type fast enough to keep up with the discussion told me a few weeks later that he had adjusted to the pace.

Another problem that arose during our *Aspects* sessions was that the openness and freedom of electronic discussion—two of its most beneficial features—tempted a few students to "go off-task" by making inappropriate remarks in their conferences. A certain amount of extraneous conversation during our lab sessions seemed natural and inoffensive. Students greeted each other as they joined the conversation, for example, and sometimes signed off in humorous fashion, just as they might in face-to-face conversation. Occasionally, however, students would remain off-topic for an extended time or make a remark that was off-color or otherwise offensive. These students seemed to feel that because the instructor was not seeing them face-to-face, they were anonymous and would not be held accountable for their comments, even though their names appeared on each computer screen, right next to the comments. I decided that usually the best way to deal with off-task and offensive comments was to avoid making a big issue of them. First, they were rare. Second, if I as instructor tried too hard to eliminate them by making public warnings to the entire class, I might, ironically, encourage their attention-seeking authors to produce more. It seemed better instead to let the offenders' peers steer the conversation in an appropriate direction. In fact, it was one of the conference moderators' main roles to keep people on topic, and I came to rely heavily on them to do so.

In addition to allowing time for both the students and me to learn how to use *Aspects*, I had to devote some time throughout the semester to administrative tasks. On days on which we were to meet in the computer lab for *Aspects* sessions, I tried to arrive a few minutes early for class so that I could unlock the lab and help the conference moderators to set up their respective conferences. Then at the end of each lab session, I saved and stored electronic versions of the conference transcripts. This process, too, took a few minutes to complete, since for each session there would be separate transcripts from three or four different discussion groups to be copied into the class folder on the network server. In fact, it became my routine to stay about ten minutes after every session to save the transcripts and to shut down any computers that students had inadvertently left on. These administrative duties were lightened somewhat by a student assistant from the computer center of our college. Assigned to give technical help to my classes, he not only assisted students who had trouble in operating their computers but also shared with me the work of setting up conferences and copying transcripts.

All of the problems my classes and I experienced in adapting to electronic discussion were minor, far outweighed by the benefits we gained. Still, instructors planning to use *Aspects* or any other electronic discussion program should take into account the time needed both for teaching students how to use the program and for performing administrative tasks. Also, instructors may find it helpful to choose conference moderators who possess especially strong diplomatic skills, for such moderators may be more successful than the average student in keeping their peers on task.

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Peers Teaching Peers

In addition to encouraging more students to talk, the *Aspects* program helped me to tap an important instructional resource: the knowledge of some of the science fiction aficionados in the classes. Through electronic discussion, I indirectly enlisted these aficionados as peer teachers for the many students in the classes who were new to science fiction and might have trouble interpreting works in this genre. As the discussion sessions progressed, I was pleased to see this peer-teaching happen spontaneously. Some students would not only comment on the topic of the day but also ask others in their conference to clarify specific events or concepts in the course readings. The responses of their peers were often thoughtful and aptly phrased. One student noted in a course evaluation that "Computer discussion was wonderful and allowed me to be helpful to the class when usually I wouldn't talk." Another said, "Comments made by other students were the most didactic part of the course for me."

A Blend of Oral and Written Discourse

Electronic discussion exhibits features of both oral and written discourse. It shares with oral discussion an informal and open quality, since it may take many different directions, with excursions from the main topic to various subtopics, and from these subtopics to alternative main topics. Indeed, electronic discussion is in some ways more open than oral discussion, because turntaking is much less structured. While in oral discussion a student may have to wait for her turn while another talks, in electronic discussion she does not. Instead, she may speak any time she wishes, since all comments are simply added serially to the transcript which appears on the screen for all participants to see. Electronic discussion also resembles oral discussion in that it moves rapidly, causing each participant to pay close attention or risk losing the conversational thread.

On the other hand, despite these similarities to oral discussion, electronic discussion does take place through the medium of writing. As students engage in the conversation, they are constantly practicing writing as they try to make their meaning clear to their classmates. In addition, they have the opportunity to learn how to write from seeing how their classmates write. On the computer screen they see the written language of those classmates who are especially articulate—who express their ideas clearly and persuasively, providing a model for their peers. The informal writing instruction that occurs in electronic discussion, though difficult to measure, may sometimes be as valuable to students as the more formal, top-down writing instruction which traditionally emanates from the teacher. For many students, seeing the model of the successful writing of their peers may be a first step toward expanding their own authorial repertoire.

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Thomas Reber is Assistant Professor of English at Canisius College, Buffalo, New York. His e-mail address is rebert@ccmac.canisius.edu.

By Thomas C. Padgett & James W. Carr

Open Records Laws and Student Evaluation Forms

This research describes state laws, and institutional policies and practices in selected public colleges and universities pertaining to public access to student evaluations of teaching performance. It is argued that statistical validity contributes to the process of teaching evaluation and provides protection against possible legal problems.

ALL STATES HAVE open records laws allowing public access to Government documents and records concerning items that are in the public interest. In several states these open records include the personnel records of public employees, including faculty members of state colleges and universities. This requirement for public access sometimes causes discomfort among faculty members because they feel that the disclosure of these records is an invasion of personal privacy. One item causing concern is the student evaluation of the teacher's performance. In most higher education settings, students evaluate faculty teaching in at least some of the courses that they take. Usually, this is done during every term.

It is common on some campuses for students to publish summary evaluations of the faculty based on these student evaluations. Ostensibly, the reason given is to enable students to make informed judgments when selecting classes. It is common to hear faculty members express resentment toward the idea of students having access to what they consider "private" personnel records. Often there is doubt about whether these evaluations really measure the effectiveness of a teacher. Some believe that they are more a measure of popularity than good teaching, and that teachers having high standards in difficult courses receive lower ratings than those who are less rigorous but more entertaining. If there is substance to these doubts, then there is good reason not to release these evaluations to the public since they would not necessarily provide a true picture of the faculty member's teaching performance. It might even be considered defamation if the release of unreliable data caused unwarranted embarrassment, or other harm, to an individual. On the other hand, if the published data could be shown to be an accurate picture of student perceptions of teaching behavior, the faculty member would have little recourse but to live with it, rationalize it (argue that the students did not really "understand," or that they had a negative bias because of low grades, etc.) or take steps to improve teaching performance.

A second major issue regarding the use of student evaluations is that these evaluations usually play a part in personnel decisions such as promotion, ten-

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ure and merit increases. Faculty members are accustomed to administrators and peers (promotion and tenure committees) reviewing faculty performance records that usually include student evaluations. The concerns about validity discussed above would also apply here. In fact, civil rights legislation has provided a legal environment in which employment tests and performance evaluations must usually be statistically reliable and valid. There must be statistical documentation that these tests and evaluations are reliable measures, are job related and predict job performance. Otherwise, the employer's legal defense is likely to be inadequate in cases of discrimination.

Court Decisions

Cases often cited as illustrative of the court decisions regarding the development and use of performance evaluation systems include: *Brito v. Zia Company* (1972) , *Albermarle Paper Company v. Moody* (1975), and *Mistretta v. Sandia Corp.* (1977/1980). The Bureau of National Affairs (BNA) recently reported the case of *Cary v. A T & T Technologies, Inc.* (1992) in which a New Jersey jury found an A. T. & T. unit and a company manager guilty of defamation for negative statements made in an employee performance appraisal that cost a black employee her job. The case is significant according to the attorneys involved, ". . . because the jury's verdict undercuts the privileged status traditionally accorded to statements of opinion made in written performance appraisals." (BNA, 1992)

In *Fields V. Clark University* (1991/1992), a case in the academic environment, student evaluations were relied on by the defendant as partial support for a decision to deny tenure. The court considered this evidence appropriate in the case and ruled in favor of the defendant. The plaintiff claimed the evaluations were biased but did not question the statistical validity of the instrument. Had she done so, the outcome might have been different.

National Policies And Practices

The issues uncovered in the above discussion bring up several questions. What is the extent of the open records laws in the various states concerning the release of student evaluations? What policies do colleges and universities typically follow concerning the use of these evaluations? Do colleges and universities typically try to ensure that evaluations used in personnel decisions are statistically valid? What difficulties have been encountered in using these evaluations?

Three sources of information were used to determine the policies and practices of public institutions of higher education nationally. The first step was to search state open records laws (found in state codes) to determine if employment records, specifically performance evaluations, and even more specifically, faculty evaluations, were excepted from access. The results of this search are summarized in Table 1.

The codes of 13 states contained no exceptions of any kind pertaining to personnel records, implying that the public would have access to all faculty personnel records including student evaluations. Two states (Arkansas and Texas) specifically mentioned that faculty records would be public.

For the states whose open records laws contained some type of exception to the disclosure of information, an attempt was made to classify the exception according to its degree of specificity. While not all cases were clearly definable, there were four general types of exceptions. The most general category of exceptions allows the withholding of information that would invade a person's privacy, but

TABLE 1—Exemptions in Open Records Laws

State	No Exceptions Found	Exceptions General in Nature	Personnel Records Excluded	Faculty Records Excluded	State	No Exceptions Found	Exceptions General in Nature	Personnel Records Excluded	Faculty Records Excluded
Alabama			X		Nebraska			X	
Alaska	X				Nevada		X		
Arizona	X				New Hampshire			X	
Arkansas	X				New Jersey			X	
California			X		New Mexico				X
Colorado			X		New York			X	
Connecticut				X	North Carolina	X			
Delaware			X		North Dakota	X			
Florida				X	Ohio	X			
Georgia	X				Oklahoma			X	
Hawaii			X		Oregon				X
Iowa			X		Pennsylvania		X		
Idaho			X		Rhode Island			X	
Illinois			X		South Carolina				X
Indiana			X		South Dakota			X	
Kansas			X		Tennessee	X			
Kentucky		X			Texas	X		X	
Louisiana		X			Utah				X
Maine	X				Vermont			X	
Maryland			X		Virginia			X	
Massachusetts			X		Washington D. C.		X		
Michigan			X		Washington		X		
Minnesota		X			West Virginia		X		
Mississippi		X	X		Wisconsin	X			
Missouri	X				Wyoming			X	
Montana	X								

does not specify what this information might be. For example, Kentucky's law exempts "Public records containing information of a personal nature where the public disclosure thereof would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy." (Open Records, 1994) It is not clear in these cases whether or not the release of student evaluations of faculty members would be an "unwarranted invasion of personal privacy."

Several states have exceptions that specifically exclude items such as personnel files. For example, Virginia's exception excludes "...personnel records containing information concerning identifiable individuals...." (Freedom of Information, 1994) Since student evaluations of faculty would probably be considered part of a faculty member's personnel record, the withholding of this information should be legal in these states. Finally, some states were found whose laws specifically excluded faculty records, including student evaluations of faculty. These states are Connecticut, Florida, New Mexico, Oregon and South Carolina.

The second phase of the research involved requesting the State Boards of Higher Education, or their equivalent, in each of the 50 states to provide information about their policies regarding the handling of faculty evaluations at public institutions. Ninety percent of those contacted provided a useable response to this request. These responses were then examined to see if state policy regarding release of personnel information tended to be consistent with the state laws. Only the higher education governing bodies in the states of Florida, Tennessee and Wisconsin reported a statewide policy carrying out the state law as it pertained to access to faculty records. Most responses indicated that individual colleges and universities set their own policies concerning these matters.

Besides answering the survey questions, several respondents shared opinions regarding the issue of defamation that might result from the release of student evaluations. For example, the chief legal counsel to the university system of a state that does not provide open access

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to student evaluations wrote, "... a faculty member would have a tough time winning a defamation claim against a student, short of the student having knowingly made false statements in a malicious manner and then distributing them beyond the classroom." The general counsel to the board of regents of another state that does not allow open access to personnel records argues that defamation claims would be a remote possibility under the law in that state. He argues further " . . . the reports would, for the most part, express the opinions of those filling out the surveys, and in most cases, for that reason would not contain actionable statements of fact."

The prevalence of litigation in our society would seem to result in more concern than is indicated by the above. The professional status of faculty members does not make them less prone than other members of society to seek redress when wronged. The seeming lack of concern about the issue of defamation is consistent, however, with the responses received from the third phase of the research.

A questionnaire was sent to the office of the Academic Vice President/Provost of two institutions in each state selected so there would be one with large enrollment and one with medium to small enrollment. Information was requested regarding the types of student evaluation forms being used, how they were developed, how they were used, whether the institutions were required to make student evaluations public and whether there had been any discrimination or defamation grievances or cases related to the use of student evaluation forms. We received a 77% useable response.

A question in the survey asked each respondent whether their school allowed open access to student evaluations of faculty. Table 2 provides information concerning their responses. Only nine schools (12%) reported having an open access policy. Surprisingly, only three of these were in states that had no exceptions to their open records laws. The results show a general inconsistency between individual school policy and state law. Probably the policies at these schools have not been challenged. Another question asked if the student evaluations were used as part of the promotion, tenure and merit evaluation processes. Of the 73 responses, 65 (93%)responded positively. A related question was whether or not the evaluation instruments had been statistically validated. Given the premise that invalid forms could possibly lead to litigation and/or faculty dissension, it is important for schools with open access to have statistically validated instruments. Likewise it is important for all schools to statistically validate their evaluation forms to protect against the possibility of discrimination suits from faculty members failing to achieve tenure or promotion. In fact it is important, despite the legal consequences, to ensure to the greatest extent possible that an instrument used for evaluation purposes is truly a valid measure of performance. The responses to the question asking whether the form had been statistically evaluated showed that very few have been. Of the 73 responses received, only seven (9.5%) said that their form had

TABLE 2
Schools with Open Access to Student Evaluations

School	State Law Has Exception	Forms Validated
Clark College	Y	N
U of Alaska at Anchorage	N	N
U of Cincinnati	N	N
U of Colorado at Boulder	Y	N
U of Idaho	Y	N
U of Kentucky	Y	N
U of New Hampshire	Y	N
U of North Dakota	N	N
U of Washington	Y	Y

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been statistically validated. Of those that were statistically validated, only one was from a school with open access (Table 2).

A final item of interest was the extent to which lawsuits and grievances have occurred that were related to student evaluations of faculty. Five schools reported one or more incidents (mostly grievances). While the information is sketchy, it appears that most of these cases were settled in favor of the institution. There is no evidence that any of these cases specifically addressed the issue of statistical validity.

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be derived from the results of the survey. Obviously there has been very little attention paid to the statistical validity of student evaluations though they are usually used as part of the overall faculty evaluation process. There may be several reasons why statistical validity has been ignored. Possibly, there is not a widespread understanding (even among college professors) about how statistical validation is accomplished, or what it means. This lack of understanding, coupled with the inherent complexity of developing and validating an instrument and the arduous committee laden decision processes that exist in the academic setting, tend to stifle efforts for improvement.

Fortunately, though there is ample precedent for application of the anti-discrimination laws to cases of student evaluations, there has been no real legal challenge made in the academic setting. It may be simply that no one has thought of it. There has also been a tendency for courts to stay away from academia and not interfere with traditional academic institution procedures such as the peer review process typically used for promotion and tenure. (Galle and Koen, 1993) However, there is evidence that the courts are changing their position toward academic institutions. Galle and Koen describe a case of an assistant professor who was denied tenure in 1985. "She filed a charge with the EEOC claiming discrimination on the basis of race (she is Asian-American), sex, and national origin." The EEOC issued a subpoena seeking the claimant's tenure file and those of all five other candidates seeking tenure. Student evaluations as well as a number of other performance evaluation documents were included in the files requested. The college refused to provide the bulk of the material sought. The court then ruled that the issue of discrimination was of a higher order than the academic institution procedure of confidential peer reviews for tenure. The authors conclude that the courts "...have abandoned their earlier non-interventionist posture. Courts appear to be taking their role in scrutinizing academic employment decisions more seriously."

At this point it is appropriate to conclude that open records and anti-discrimination laws have potential legal implications for colleges and universities given the current use of student evaluations of faculty performance. Since there has been no real test of these laws in the academic setting, the severity of these implications is uncertain. However, there are some steps that can be taken to help ensure that the institution's personnel processes are fair and equitable, and to protect the institution from litigation.

Recommendations

The most obvious step would be to attempt to statistically validate the student evaluation questionnaire. The details of how this is accomplished are beyond the scope of this article, but the steps involved include:

1. Defining clearly the aspects of teacher performance that are to be measured.
2. Write questions that clearly relate to the aspects of performance that were defined.
3. Administer the questionnaire and analyze the results using a reliability measure of internal consistency such as Chronbach's alpha and a multivariate statistical procedure such as principal components analysis or confirmatory factor analysis to determine if the question results are correlated with the aspects of performance that they were designed to measure.
4. If necessary, revise the questionnaire until the desired correlations are achieved.

Other steps that could be useful would be to review the promotion and tenure processes to ensure that student evaluations are not the only input for evaluating teaching performance, and to ensure that faculty members are not denied tenure or promotion primarily because of the results of non-validated student evaluations.

It was noted above that several schools allowed open access to student evaluations even though the state laws applying to the schools allowed exceptions for the case of personnel records. Since the laws themselves recognize a right to privacy for these documents, it would be appropriate for schools to review the policy of open access to student evaluations, especially if there has been no attempt to ensure their statistical validity.

Finally, it is important not to become overly obsessed with numbers. Averages can usually be computed from student evaluations, and when there are numbers available, there is a tendency to want to compare them. However, if there is no good reason to believe that the evaluation is measuring what it is supposed to measure, an average computed from the evaluation has little meaning. One of the authors recalls a discussion from a promotion/tenure committee in which he participated. An individual's student evaluations were being discussed by the committee (they were a little low), and some of the committee members had commented that they had very little faith in the validity of the evaluation instrument. Another committee member (a department chairman) then commented "..I agree that student evaluation results are not particularly valid, but they are all we have, so we need to use them." We think that we all have an obligation to do better than this.

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Dr. Thomas C. Padgett is a Professor of Business Administration in the Department of Management & Business Systems at West Georgia College; Carrollton, Georgia 30118-3030.

Dr. James W. Carr is an Assistant Professor of Business Administration in the Department of Management & Business Systems at West Georgia College; Carrollton, Georgia 30118-3030

By Sheila W. Chauvin & Christine B. Eleser

Lessons Learned: Designing and Implementing Professional Development *With* Faculty

This article highlights lessons learned from the authors' personal experiences with faculty to define a conceptual model of faculty development and a plan for program implementation. The authors suggest that these lessons are applicable to other institutions where faculty and staff are contemplating a university-wide faculty development program.

IN RECENT YEARS, higher education has been called to respond to greater demands of accountability and instructional reform than ever before. Boyer (1990) and others (e.g., Massey & Wilger, 1992) illustrate the increasing public criticism of higher education that has accompanied frequent and recurring calls to reform key elements of postsecondary education. The familiar ring of reform that has characterized the 1980s and early 1990s demonstrates a strong belief that the quality of students' learning and development is directly influenced by the quality of their academic programs and experiences.

A strong faculty development program can signal an administrative commitment to the continuous improvement of effective teaching and learning, scholarly productivity, and organizational effectiveness. This article is an account of one institution's efforts to involve faculty in the design of a comprehensive faculty development program. What did we learn from others? How have we translated insights into realities? What lessons have we learned? Where do we go from here?

What did we learn from others?

We began by reviewing the literature on faculty development and by asking faculty to identify their professional development goals and preferences. We also examined our existing programs and services to identify the various sources of support for professional development that were available to the faculty. These sources of information provided a useful context for making sense of our current faculty development efforts and for developing a vision of the program. In essence, we wanted to know where we were and where we were going. The following sections summarize key elements of our background work that were pertinent to the initial program development work at Southeastern.

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Background of Faculty Development in Higher Education

Our review of the literature revealed several interesting insights. Before the 1970s very few colleges and universities had any type of formalized instructional improvement program. However, by the mid 1980s and early 1990s about 60 percent of America's colleges and universities had established some type of instructional improvement program (Centra, 1976; Erickson, 1986). In the Erickson study (1986), 50% of the survey respondents revealed that their current programs were initiated between 1981 and the present. The programs and services in these types of instructional improvement programs include a variety of activities that often reflect considerable overlap among professional, curriculum, and organizational development purposes. For example, workshops on techniques to promote active learning may fit goals in one or more of the following areas: professional development, instructional development, or curriculum development.

Traditional faculty development programs included teaching workshops, individual teaching consultations, newsletters, sabbatical leaves, research grants, professional enhancement stipends, and other released-time, monetary, or recognition awards to encourage faculty in their independent pursuits of professional development goals, devoid of any direct connections to program, department, or institutional goals or outcomes. Experienced faculty developers (e.g., Bowman, 1993; Weimer, 1991; Zahorski, 1993), suggest that the field of faculty development has rapidly expanded and changed in its short tenure in higher education. For some faculty developers, the early 1990s represents a paradigm shift, causing them to reexamine their roles and the various means by which they support faculty in professional development activities.

Contemporary approaches to faculty development are targeting, more than ever, other processes that emphasize professional reflection, systems thinking, critical inquiry, and collaboration among faculty on campus, within disciplines and across disciplines. Fiedeler (1991) points to classroom research projects as a ready avenue for faculty to share ideas and experiences with colleagues and to support one another in their quest for enhancing individual teaching effectiveness. Such activities link research and scholarship with teaching, collaboration, and professional development in ways focused on the impact or outcomes realized by students. Thus, as individual teachers develop and improve, so does the institution as a whole and the students' learning and development.

Initial Efforts at Southeastern Louisiana University

Like many institutions, faculty development at Southeastern before 1991 was primarily a responsibility of individual faculty and each school/college within the university. Goals, priorities, and faculty development activities varied widely, depending upon the unique interests and needs of the faculty/staff within each of the respective units. During an administrative retreat in October 1991, the academic deans, directors, and central administration discussed faculty development as an institution-wide priority. In January 1992, the Provost for Academic Affairs and Student Affairs appointed nine faculty members to form the University Faculty Development Committee.

Initial tasks of the committee were to designate faculty development funds for specific programs and activities and to develop an interim set of guidelines for implementing university-wide faculty development activities for the Spring 1992 semester. Other tasks given to the committee in its initial charge included the following: 1) function in an advisory capacity to the central administration; 2) develop a strategic, long-range plan for faculty development; and 3) recommend specific faculty development activities, based upon input received from faculty across campus. The early faculty development efforts resulted in a variety of campus-wide programs and incentives that included the following: new faculty orientation, professional enhancement grants/stipends; awards for excellence in teaching, in research, and in artistic activity; travel funds to attend professional meetings; and sabbatical leave funds.

Faculty Perspectives of Professional Development

Consistent with findings in the change process literature (e.g., Hall & Hord, 1987; Waugh & Punch, 1985), the initial activities of the committee focused on encouraging faculty interest and ownership to individual and organizational development and on facilitating positive receptivity to change/innovation. From the onset, the committee functioned as a liaison between the faculty-at-large and the central administration to respond effectively to faculty needs and priorities. The committee also focused on building a shared commitment to faculty development.

Once the interim guidelines were developed, the committee quickly began drafting a questionnaire to identify faculty development priorities. The *Professional Development: Your Preferences Survey* was developed to fulfill two purposes: 1) to identify the goals faculty members believed were important to their professional development, and 2) to identify the types of activities and support services perceived to be most helpful to faculty in meeting their professional development goals. Questionnaires were sent to all full-time faculty (teaching and library). Not surprising, professional development goals selected most often by the faculty respondents included the following: 1) maintain in-depth knowledge of content in my field of specialization and general discipline; 2) improve skills as an effective teacher, share instructional ideas and renew enthusiasm for teaching; 3) improve research methods, techniques, and productivity.

Faculty indicated preferences for three types of faculty development: 1) workshops on effective teaching and learning strategies, research ideas, and content/curriculum; 2) funds for research assistants and to attend conferences; and 3) sabbatical leaves and reductions in teaching load.

How did we translate insights into realities?

The analysis of survey results and many committee discussions helped to clarify general perceptions of faculty development and to design professional development activities for faculty. Faculty understandings of professional development programs and intentions varied widely, and for the most part, reflected independent, private activities more than collaborative and reflective involvement. The following sections summarize some initial activities used to respond to faculty priorities and to encourage a reflective and collaborative model of professional development.

Individual Faculty Development

Faculty were familiar with individual activities to support professional growth. To support their continued involvement in these types of activities, the committee established guidelines for providing funds to support faculty in their individual pursuits. Two funding categories were established. The first type of support established funds for departmental use, based on equal professional enhancement awards for each full-time faculty. Faculty used their professional enhancement awards to accomplish a variety of activities, such as attend professional conferences in their disciplines; visit exemplary programs in other places; implement innovative teaching techniques; develop or update teaching materials; engage in special projects; or present papers and sessions in professional meetings. The second category designated general funds to be used by the faculty development committee to support institution-wide activities (e.g., sabbatical leaves, university-wide workshops/seminars). While these activities were worthwhile for individual professional development, they did not easily encourage reflective, collegial, and collaborative professional development processes.

Collaborative Faculty Development

Some members of the University Faculty Development Committee were interested in pursuing activities that encouraged faculty collaboration, within and across disciplines. We also wanted to emphasize efforts to encourage continuous professional development specifically in teaching and learning processes. Committee discussions about these issues and a review of the 1991 faculty survey results prompted a campus-wide professional development conference in May 1993 to involve faculty in a series of reflective and collaborative professional development experiences. Three faculty developers from across the United States served as consultants/session facilitators for a three-day conference designed to meet four main purposes: 1) enhance the professional development of faculty in areas of identified need/interest; 2) enhance a professional sense of community between faculty and administrators; 3) identify specific ways in which faculty at Southeastern may be supported in their continuing development and achievement of professional goals; and 4) develop an informed nucleus of faculty committed to faculty development at Southeastern.

Enrollment for the conference was limited to 100 regular, full-time faculty (approximately one-third of all full-time faculty) to facilitate maximum interactions between participants and session facilitators/consultants. Registration was on a first-come basis and participants agreed to actively participate for the full three days. Faculty groups of 30-35 people worked with each consultant on each of the three days. Faculty participants received a modest stipend for their participation in the conference and for sharing information with their depart- ment faculty at the beginning of the Fall 1993, semester.

At the end of each conference day, faculty shared insights and perspectives with one another in small groups and provided written comments and suggestions for future faculty development programs. Three focus questions guided the group discussions and participants drafted written responses to each of the three questions, based on their day's experiences. A content analysis of these comments was completed and later shared with the faculty participants to verify a set of common themes derived from the analysis.

As shown in Table 1, faculty perspectives and responses to the focus questions ranged from campus-wide workshop offerings to the refinement of evaluation processes. Results of a debriefing session with the faculty development consultants confirmed the faculty perspectives shown in Table 1.

Conference participants were invited to a follow-up "brown bag" luncheon and discussion in October 1993. The common themes shown in Table 1 were shared with these individuals. The faculty worked in five small groups to confirm/dispute the common themes and to set priorities for faculty development initiatives. We then reviewed the common themes and priorities for each small group. The chairperson and one other member of the faculty development committee who observed focus group discussions at the conference were asked to verify the accuracy of the common themes and priorities.

TABLE 1
Common themes reflected in responses to focus questions during small group discussions (May 1993).

Focus Questions:

1. What are the main issues and ideas you have formed during today's experience?
2. How do you foresee using these ideas to enhance your own professional development?
3. How can you use these ideas and experiences next year as we continue our Faculty Development activities at SLU?

Common Themes, in order of emphasis:

1. Workshops, panel discussions, "brown bags," seminar series
2. Heightened awareness and communication
3. Individual commitment to enhancing teaching/learning (specific changes)
4. Faculty development model/Coordination of activities
5. Resources and support for writing and teaching
6. Newsletter, print resources, multimedia
7. Expanded definition of *faculty development*
8. Expanded definition of *scholarship*
9. Mentor programs
10. Individual consultations
11. Organization and time management for professors (writing, teaching, etc.)
12. Clarity and equity in tenure/promotion expectation
13. Development evaluations of teaching that fit various teaching/learning contexts

Essentially, two priorities resulted from the small group discussions: 1) to develop a faculty development model and designate a person/group to implement and coordinate program activities; and 2) to enhance communication channels across campus and build consensus about key issues related to faculty development.

In response to these priorities the following activities were carried out during the 1993-1994 academic year:

1. expand membership of the University Faculty Development Committee to fifteen;
2. sponsor five faculty participants (one representative for each college/school) to attend the annual meeting of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD);
3. establish an ad hoc committee to study and develop a program model for faculty development at Southeastern; and
4. establish an ad hoc committee to study and develop a university-wide sabbatical leave policy.

The faculty members who attended the 1994 POD conference met early in the Fall 1993 semester to discuss ways in which they could advance faculty development on the Southeastern campus. Table 2 lists the specific activities recommended to the committee by this key group of faculty/POD participants.

Faculty input and committee discussions continue to prompt a variety of faculty development activities. For example, a workshop on teaching portfolios conducted in the Spring 1994 semester was a huge success. Faculty interest resulting from the workshop has prompted a member of the faculty development committee to collaborate with about twelve faculty members in small discussion groups to facilitate their development of teaching portfolios for formative purposes.

Similarly, the authors worked together to coordinate a second campus-wide conference in June 1994. Faculty "showcase sessions" were included in the

1994 conference to recognize/reward faculty accomplishments in teaching and learning and to extend opportunities for professional collaboration across disciplines. Committee efforts are underway to publish a faculty development newsletter, to establish a collection of print and non-print resource materials, and to plan additional workshops and "brown bag" luncheons/discussions.

TABLE 2.
Synthesis of faculty priorities identified in small-group discussions (October 1993).

1. Develop a program model and designate a person/group to implement the model and coordinate planned activities to support faculty in their professional development.
   - provide resources and support for professional development across multiple areas (scholarship, teaching/learning)
   - offer workshops, panel discussions, "brown bags," and seminar series on focused topics/issues
   - provide individual consultations, mentor programs, consistent follow-up
   - start a newsletter
   - establish a resource center/library collection of print and multimedia resources
   - continue campus-wide professional development conferences
2. Enhance communication channels across campus and build consensus about key issues related to faculty development
   - expand definitions of *faculty development* and *scholarship*
   - clarify and assure equity in tenure/promotion expectations
   - refine ways to evaluate teaching effectiveness

Interest in faculty development as a reflective and collaborative process is gaining momentum across the campus. Opportunities to observe or interact with faculty suggest increased interest and involvement in activities to enhance teaching, learning, and other professional development activities. Several faculty from different disciplines are collaborating on joint research projects and on innovative approaches to teaching/learning. Similarly, the results of various assessment activities are being used to examine and improve teaching and learning processes, rather than on simply documenting achievement levels. Faculty members participating in the various activities have commented frequently about the benefits of professional reflection and collaboration. As we reflect on our experiences with campus-wide faculty development, we have learned several important lessons. We conclude the article with these lessons and the guiding principles that have emerged from our professional reflection and collaboration.

What lessons have we learned?

Our initial activities were typical of start-up efforts, primarily reactionary and focused on providing equitable support (i.e., funds) for each full-time faculty member to pursue self-selected professional development activities. However, near the end of the second year we began to consider faculty development as a way to enhance institutional effectiveness and to encourage professional reflection, collegiality, and collaboration. Perhaps Southeastern's status as one of the fastest growing universities in the United States emphasized the need to nurture and maintain a sense of community among faculty, staff, and students. Perhaps, we were especially eager to find synergistic ways to encourage and recognize faculty effectiveness.

Despite our enthusiasm, our backgrounds and experiences in change process reminded us of the slow and arduous pace with which these types of normative change take place. As we reflect on our experiences, we are reminded of several recurring lessons that suggest the following principles for guiding faculty development initiatives:

1. Develop a shared vision of faculty development

Leadership to develop a common set of understandings about faculty development is necessary, but not sufficient to facilitate and sustain professional growth and development for faculty, individually and as a professional community; the vision must be shared through words and actions and through a process of consensus building about "who we are" and "how we do things around here." While faculty and administrators recognized the importance of faculty development from the very beginning, it has taken the committee and key faculty/staff nearly three years to reach consensus about the key purposes and processes of a campus-wide faculty development program. Surveys, committee discussions, ad hoc committees, workshops, seminars, meetings, informal interactions, and collaborative study have all contributed to a common set of understandings about faculty development, professional reflection, and collegiality.

2. Build commitment, not just interest

A key component of any faculty development program is the extent to which faculty believe in its value for their individual, and collective, professional development. Simply said, faculty must have ownership for the program and feel the benefits outweigh the costs of continuous improvement. For example, finding the time and resources to pursue professional development is often difficult and frustrating; but when the experiences are professionally satisfying, faculty are more likely to take advantage of other opportunities, even when they are not convenient. Recognizably, it is critical that administrators express to faculty their support and recognition of faculty efforts to improve professionally and continuously.

3. Develop a plan and link it to the "big picture" (vision)

While faculty continue to pursue individual professional development activities, it is important for them, as organizational members, to also understand how their professional growth can enhance the university and vice versa. Implementation of campus-wide faculty development activities based on faculty input, college/department goals, and university goals can help to link individual growth with enhancing institutional effectiveness. At Southeastern, continuous efforts to involve faculty in the design of a campus-wide faculty development model have linked individual professional needs with organizational and institution-wide needs. Broad-based involvement and open discussions about faculty development, and instructional and organizational effectiveness appear important to building strong bonds between the various roles and professional needs of faculty.

4. Provide the necessary resources

Giving priority to adequate funds, personnel, and time for professional, instructional, and organizational development activities is important to faculty commitment and involvement, especially during times when such resources are limited. For example, budget priorities for faculty development and team efforts to effectively use resources can go far in enhancing the quality of teaching and learning for students and faculty.

5. Provide continuous monitoring and assistance

It is important to actively involve the people closest to the process(es) in establishing clear, expected outcomes and the strategies to achieve these results. Faculty feedback can be very helpful in

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matching the appropriate resources and strategies to faculty needs (Evans & Chauvin, 1993; Hall & Hord, 1987). Faculty input about goals, preferred activities, and the effectiveness of various program offerings and activities provides important information for the ongoing monitoring and refinement of faculty development programs and purposes.

6. Provide a balance of pressure *and* support

Faculty may perceive professional development through a variety of interpretive frames. For example, sometimes faculty might view faculty development in terms of "What's in it for me?" (e.g., tenure and promotion). At other times, faculty might value professional development activities for the collective benefits of enhancing a program or department. Administrators and faculty must work collaboratively to provide purposeful and consistent follow-through, so that the program implementation continues steadily.

Where do we go from here?

As the authors conclude this article, a conceptual model and implementation plan for a university-wide program has been completed. It is being shared with faculty and administrators and efforts are focused on making it a reality. We have not reached this stage of program development without diversity and challenge; we expect to meet other challenges as we move forward with program implementation. Certainly, a campus-based program can suggest substantial change in the "who we are" and "how we do things around here." Such organizational changes can prompt questions and concerns from both faculty and administrators alike. However, we have learned from and with each other about the importance of individual reflection and collaborative processes for professional development.

The literature on faculty development programs shows a variety of program designs. It also provides a number of program delivery models and accounts of initial implementations that illustrate the importance of achieving a good fit between the design of a program and the needs and character of an institution. Yet *how* an institution makes a faculty development program a reality is key to the successful implementation of its services.

We are in the very early stages of initiating a campus-wide program. Changes in the professional practices of individual faculty are not obvious, but feedback from individuals who have participated in the early faculty development activities are encouraging. From a practical perspective, we believe the lessons described in this article can help other faculty and faculty developers examine their programs, practices, and ways of introducing innovations to faculty at large. These lessons, or insights, may help other faculty developers facilitate the implementation of new programs or the expansion of existing programs. We also believe these lessons may be useful for enhancing our simultaneous roles as teachers and as learners in a reflective and collaborative process of continuous faculty development.

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Sheila W. Chauvin is the Director of Outcomes Assessment and a Member of the University Faculty Development Committee at Southeastern Louisiana University.

Christine B. Eleser is an Assistant Professor of the Department in Developmental Education and a Member of the University Faculty Development Committee, Southeastern Louisiana University

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By Steve Kokovich, Charles Drubel & John W. Creswell

An Exploratory Study of the Role of Part-Time Administrators in Small, Private Liberal Arts Colleges

This study explored the role of part-time administrators, faculty members who assume administrative positions on a part-time basis, in eight small, private liberal arts colleges. Indepth interviews were conducted by the investigators with forty-five part-time administrators. From these interviews aspects of the role were identified: demographics, qualities necessary for the role, reasons why individuals accepted the position, satisfactions and dissatisfactions with the role, the perceived value of the role, the impact of the role on performance as a faculty member, and advice necessary for those who aspire to the role. A conceptual model is advanced that has potential for relating theory to the study of part-time administrators and for incorporating new research methodologies.

FACULTY MEMBERS who assume administrative roles on a part-time basis (i.e., part-time administrators) are a crucial component of most small, private liberal arts (or baccalaureate) colleges. Since many of these colleges face limited financial resources and have engaged in a reduction of personnel, a reliance on part-time administrators enables the institution to reduce overall full-time administrative costs. In this study, part-time administrators held positions of department chairpersons, athletic administrators, directors of computing, administrators of graduate programs, directors of nursing, and coordinators of other campus programs. While this group of part-time administrators hold different responsibilities on the small college campus, they all serve in both a faculty and administrative assignment.

It is estimated that a sizable number of faculty in small colleges occupy these positions, and the leadership of small, private schools is either enhanced or reduced by the effectiveness of these individuals (Kokovich & Drubel, 1992, 1993a, 1993b). In the environment of a small college with expected reliance on the service of part-time administrators, institutional personnel at these schools need to better understand these "mixed roles," enhance the satisfaction and pro-

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ductivity of individuals occupying them, and integrate the part-time role into the overall culture of the campus reward system.

To reach these ends, campuses need a clearer picture of the roles of part-time administrators. To date, the literature is silent on these roles, and a need exists to conduct an exploratory study to begin the research dialogue. The related literature, however, is a starting point: role studies of mid-level academic leaders have been conducted (e.g., Booth, 1983; Gmelch & Burns, 1991; Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1994). These studies have not been conducted within the context of the small, private liberal arts schools. Further, some literature exists about administrators at small, private colleges, but the studies are almost exclusively delimited to academic chairpersons. Ruzza (1984), for example, examined the informal and personal environment for chairs in speech departments; Hettich and Lema-Stern (1989) surveyed the professional development activities of department chairpersons in private four-year undergraduate colleges with enrollments between 200 and 2500. Bowker and Lynch (1985) examined the management problems for chairs of small departments in small colleges. In a national study of chairpersons at diverse types of institutions (Creswell, Wheeler, Seagren, Egly, & Beyer, 1990), the thirty chairs from small, private liberal arts schools in the sample characterized their roles in the institution as faculty as much as administration.

The central purpose of this exploratory study was to add to the knowledge base about the roles of mid-level administrators in small, private colleges and more specifically, to better understand the dual role responsibilities of part-time administrators. It was decided to study all part-time administrators, as a group, in the colleges because their roles were enacted within the context of the small college environment. This study, therefore, included chairpersons, athletic administrators, directors of computing, administrators of graduate programs, directors of nursing, and coordinators of programs (N=45) in eight small, private liberal arts colleges in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. Since specific variables have not been identified for the role of the part-time administrator, the investigators used typical role dimensions examined in other contexts (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler, 1994). These were: demographics, role qualities, role acceptance, satisfiers/dissatisfiers, perceived value of the role, role performance, and role advice. The exploratory questions addressed were: What are the personal and institutional demographics of part-time administrators? What are their perceived role qualities, their role acceptance, their role satisfactions and dissatisfactions, their role values, their role performance, and role advice? From responses to these questions, a profile of part-time administrators can be presented as well as future questions and conceptual frames for further study.

Method

During the spring and summer of 1992, the investigators visited eight small, private liberal arts colleges in Ohio, Pennsylvania and West Virginia, and conducted hour-long individual interviews with 45 faculty members who performed part-time administrative duties. These eight schools were similar in size and their FTE enrollments ranged from 900 to 2200 students. Six of the eight schools were affiliated with a single, small college consortium. To collect information, the investigators first sent a letter to the academic deans at these eight schools requesting permission to interview individuals on their campuses. Later, investigators used a followup telephone conversation with the deans who agreed to participate in order to identify faculty who were both eligible for tenure and who held part-time administrative duties. This procedure resulted in interviews with individuals on tenure track contracts or those with tenure who had assumed part-time roles on the eight campuses.

In the actual interviews, the investigators posed both open-ended, rating, and dichotomous scaled questions using a self-developed interview protocol. As shown in Appendix A, the seven constructs studied were: individual and institutional demographics, role qualities, role acceptance, role satisfactions and dissatisfactions, role values, role performance, and advice about the role formed the underlying structure of the study. The initial interview protocol was pilot tested at a small, liberal arts college similar in size to those studied. Further, this pilot testing continued on the first two campuses visited; later, individuals on these two pilot campuses were sent modified questions to be answered. During each interview, the investigators took notes on comments made, recorded specific quotes to use in the study, and identified specific themes to report in the results.

Results

Individual and Institutional Demographics

The study group of 35 males (77.8%) and 10 females (22.2%) represented 15 disciplines and a wide array of part-time administrative roles, including 12 department chairpersons, 5 athletic administrators, 5 directors of computing, 3 administrators with graduate programs, and 20 persons in other varied duties, such as a Coordinator of the Basic Education program, Director of Nursing or Director of Theatre.

The group had been employed by their respective institutions for an average of 17.9 years, averaged 21 years teaching at the college/university level, and consisted of persons from the following academic ranks: professor (55.6%), associate professor (28.9%), assistant professor (11.1%), and instructor (4.4%). Of the study group, (84.4%) had tenure and had been in their present part-time administrative positions an average of 7.6 years. Most (86.7%) were asked to serve in this position; a few (13.3%) actively sought out the position. Approximately a third of their contracts (31.3%) were formally based on an administrative assignment. A frequency distribution of the length of their contracts was bi-modal representing equally 9 month and 12 month contracts. In these contracts, slightly more than three quarters (77.8%) reported to the same person for faculty and administrative responsibilities. These contracts also granted some reduction in teaching load for 80% of the individuals, provided an extra stipend for 35.6%, and enabled both a reduced teaching load and an extra stipend for 28.9% of the respondents.

In terms of preparation for their position, twenty-two (48.9%) of these part-time administrators had previously held a similar administrative position. But 64.2% reported that they did not have any formal administrative training before assuming their part-time appointment. And 95.6% indicated that the institution did not provide any formal training after accepting their administrative position. In addition, two-thirds (62.2%) of the individuals did not have any evaluation of their performance in the administrative role.

In summary, a profile of these individuals is that they tended to be senior faculty who were asked to assume part-time administrative positions. They were rewarded for their work through reduced teaching loads and some had additional stipends, and they split their work equally between teaching and administration. Many had little experience in administration prior to their present position, and the institution provided neither training on-the-job nor an evaluation of their administrative performance.

Role Qualities

Study participants cited many personal qualities essential for effectiveness in a part-time administrative role. These included organizational and planning abilities, a strong work ethic, an ability to work well with others, patience, good interpersonal skills, willingness to listen, and communication skills as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Role Qualities

Personal Quality	Number of Times Mentioned
Organizational and planning abilities	14
Strong work ethic	12
Ability to work well with others	10
Patience	7
Interpersonal skills	5
Willingness to listen to others	5
Communication skills	5

Organizational and planning abilities were most frequently mentioned as necessary role qualities for the part-time position. One person felt that people required the "ability to balance a diverse array of demands and still survive" while another stated "management skills, foresight and planning ability," being "creative," having "entrepreneur skills, political and interpersonal skills, and efficient and economy of paperwork skills" were all necessary in performing their jobs. One interviewee, when talking about the need for a strong work ethic, said one had to be a "self-starter, highly motivated," to be willing to "go beyond essentials" and "enjoy diversity."

The bottom five categories could be lumped into a general category of broad communication abilities. The number of references to these abilities (32) suggests the importance given to interpersonal skills. In the open environment of higher education it is not surprising that these skills are highly valued and characterized as essential. One respondent described the range of necessary skills as follows; "a sense of humor, patience, interpersonal skills, ability to communicate, sensitivity to the ability and desires of staff, ability to convey appreciation to others, organization," and a "willingness to give time you don't have." Another said such persons need "lots of patience," with the ability to "relate to people," be "open-minded," and have an "even disposition." Finally, in summing up all qualities needed for the role, one individual mentioned the importance of "dedication, perseverance, organizational abilities," and "interpersonal abilities."

Role Acceptance

In the interviews people were asked why they had accepted the part-time administrative role. The responses primarily related to perceived satisfactions to be gained from such an experience and their own personal career interests. From the open-ended question about why they accepted these roles, a picture emerged as shown in Table 2.

A personal interest in administration was the major reason given for engaging in such duties followed by challenge, rejuvenation, enjoyment of administration, utilization of abilities, money, and a means for career enhancement. People saw their new administrative role as a means to be involved in programs which coincided with their personal and professional interests. For one respondent the opportunity was viewed as a choice that "naturally evolved from computer science interest." Another interviewee stated that he was the "obvious one to do it" due to "previous administrative experience" and that he "had been interviewing" for a "similar position" at another institution. One respondent saw his new role as a means to "protect the quality of the computer science program," in addition to being "very familiar with the area" and having had "a similar position at another institution." Many respondents already had developed an interest in administration even though their previous experiences were those of a full-time faculty member.

TABLE 2
Role Acceptance

Reasons	Number of Times Mentioned
Interest in administration	11
New challenges	6
Rejuvenation	5
Enjoy administration	5
Best utilize abilities	5
Money	4
Career Enhancement	4

The opportunity to do something different from their faculty role was cited by several people as a factor in accepting their new positions. One respondent stated that he "felt stale in his previous position" and "wanted a new challenge." Some expressed an interest in administration, but not in a full-time capacity. Another offered the observation that he "enjoyed the combination of teaching and administrative work and I decided I didn't want to be a full-time administrator." Others echoed the theme of being challenged in their dual roles, making statements such as, "starting a program excited me" and the "challenge to improve the department." While not mentioned as often as the previous reasons, financial gain and possible career enhancement were cited as additional factors in accepting the new challenge.

Role Satisfactions

Participants in the study indicated a generally high level of personal satisfaction with their additional role as part-time administrators. The finding that interviewees had been in the part-time administrative position an average of 7.6 years tended to support a high level of satisfaction. They most often related having a high level of satisfaction from two aspects of their duties: seeing growth and working with or helping others (as shown in Table 3).

TABLE 3
Role Satisfactions

Satisfaction	Number of Times Mentioned
Seeing growth	28
Working with people/helping others	23
Having a wider influence	12
Enjoying management	9
Having an opportunity to be creative	5
Having a challenge	3
Receiving positive feedback	3
Solving problems	2
Helping the college	2

Another said he "enjoyed seeing results, helping the college" and "helping faculty." "Working with people and helping others, working toward a common mission" was an observation offered by yet another respondent in support of the above statements. Among many of those questioned there clearly existed a quiet pride in having been in some way responsible for success. Additionally, some participants saw the administrative position as providing an opportunity to have a wider influence than in just a role of a full-time faculty member. One person felt the part-time administrative position provided a "chance to have an effect on the well being of the institution"

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and that "my presence makes a positive difference." Another believed the position provided an opportunity to "learn something new," offered a "new set of information," and "made me feel more professional" and "enlarged my universe." Secondary sources of administrative satisfaction revolved around the enjoyment of the challenge and control of management and the ability to express creativity. One respondent speculated how she liked a "new challenge, liked the organization part of it" and the "novelty." Another liked "being able to go from the ground floor" in "creating a program." For some, the positions provided "some control over what's happening in the department." For others, their duties provided an avenue in which to express creativity. One interviewee offered the perspective that, for him, management was an "art form."

Relatedly, when the study group was asked what they had gained from the experience, the greatest number of responses fell within two broad categories: having a greater appreciation of how the institution operates (17 responses) and the satisfaction in seeing program growth (8 responses). A large number of respondents spoke about developing a larger institutional perspective. One professor commented about a "greater appreciation for disciplines other than my own" and a "greater appreciation for administrative positions; they work hard." Another expressed "appreciation for the complexities of other areas of the college" and for "other professors' problems." Related to the larger institutional perspective was a greater confidence as a result of having been effective in the larger environment. As one interviewee stated, he was "much wiser, savvy, about who I am and what I want from life," and that the experience provided him with the "confidence and satisfaction of having many projects fulfilled" after seeing the "growth and success of many programs."

Role Dissatisfactions

The dissatisfactions encountered by the study group primarily revolved around five broad categories: time demands, budget problems, a lack of appreciation, problems with colleagues and supervisors, and lack of clarity and control as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
Role Dissatisfactions

Frustrations	Number of Times Mentioned
Time demands	31
Budget problems	11
Lack of appreciation	10
Problems with faculty	8
Problems with superiors	6
Problems with the bureaucracy	6
Amount of paperwork	4
Lack of control	4
Lack of clear job description	2

Time demands. Time demands associated with the performance of administrative tasks were mentioned most often as drawbacks of the administrative role. These proved to be frustrating even though typically through contractual agreement, there was a reduction in the normal teaching load associated with the additional position. Respondents expressed the concern that their administrative position affected other aspects of their professional and personal lives in a variety of ways, including "the clash with teaching," the "absence of time for scholarly work after teaching and administration," being "behind the eight ball, something has to give; classes or administrative duties," the "constant balancing with other responsibilities," "more to do than can be done, pressure to do more," that it had become "very hard to get away from campus for an extended period," and finding oneself "doing almost a full-time job for 1/2 time reduction in load." The particular area of their professional lives which was affected most was research and scholarship. Of the respondents (68.9%) felt that at times their administrative roles proved overwhelming and the group indicated they spent about 51.2% of their time on administrative tasks and responsibilities.

Budget problems. Various kinds of budget problems were mentioned by a number of interviewees, ranging from the lack of input or impact to inaccuracy, to excessive restraints. One respondent felt that she "cannot determine budget requirements," nor have any "major impact over budget considerations." One complained of "not having an adequate budget" while another felt he had to "deal with current budget problems and economic restraints" while being "asked to increase (his) level of participation."

Lack of appreciation. Lack of appreciation from various sources was the third most frequently cited area of frustration. The variety of responses indicated that the problem could arise from any of various areas of the college environment and included a "lack of appreciation, recognition from administration," "justifying the position to superiors," finding "colleagues indifferent and resistant," and seeing the "dean making decisions without my involvement." One respondent was concerned about the "tenure committee not really having a grasp of how much time is consumed and therefore not evaluating my activities when it comes to tenure decisions." There was evidence, however, that the group in general felt that they were recognized by their immediate superiors, and that it was expressed in various ways, including both verbal and written feedback.

Problems with colleagues and superiors. Problems with colleagues and superiors were reported as an additional source of frustration. Faculty problems ranged from part-time administrators' uneasiness about whether fellow faculty would evaluate their non-teaching activities fairly when it came to tenure decisions, to faculty resistance to the idea of faculty occupying administrative positions. Problems with superiors ranged from having to justify and legitimize one's position and dealing with "changes in superiors," to the lack of recognition for accomplishments.

Lack of role clarity and control. Some of the frustrations associated with the part-time administrator position emanated from a lack of role clarity between the traditional faculty duties of teaching, research, and scholarly activity and the time demands and other commitments required of the administrative role. This was portrayed by respondents regarding their lack of control over job definitions, and insufficient clarity of expectations and responsibilities for them. One respondent felt that the job is "overwhelming, the position is not well-defined" and there was "not sufficient staff or administrative understanding/support." One potential reason for lack of role clarity may be the lack of written job descriptions. Many interviewees reported that they created the job description themselves after taking the position in order to clarify and set some parameters upon the position. Nearly all felt clearer job descriptions would be desirable. One felt, however, that "it could not possibly cover everything that occurs" while another cautioned that "if they wrote down the truth nobody would take the position." Other reasons for the lack of role clarity may be the small number of individuals who were evaluated for their administrative role and the lack of formal training after acceptance of the part-time assignment.

Perceived Role Value

Perceptions of the value of part-time administrators were assessed in several ways. One approach was to determine if administrators, superiors, and colleagues valued the role. Thirty-seven or 82.2% of the part-time administrators said that their role was valued by administration. The same number and percentage also reported that their "superiors" valued their role, but on a scale from 1-10, the study group indicated that their colleagues valued the role at 5.6, or slightly above the midpoint on the scale.

Another measure of value was assessed by examining how the role related to the promotion and tenure process. A mixed picture emerged. Although the study group was concerned about the lack of time and a clear role, they did not single out tenure and promotion as a concern about their position. In terms of tenure, 26 of the respondents (57.8%) indicated they had already received tenure before accepting the part-time administrative role. For those 19 individuals who had not received tenure before accepting the role, 13 (68.4%) believed their administrative duties "were" factored into the tenure decision. When asked "how much was your administrative responsibility factored into your tenure decision?", an average score of 5.3 on a ten-point scale resulted (with 1 being very little and 10 being a great deal). There was a wide range of opinions expressed when all respondents were asked whether administrative responsibility should be considered in tenure decisions. One respondent felt that administrative roles should "never" be considered in tenure decisions, while another interviewee simply stated "tenure is for teaching." Thirty-one individuals (68.9%) felt their administrative performance should be a factor in the tenure decision, as shown by the statement, "yes, it depends on the contract." Some respondents said that the weight should be proportional to the amount of work done in the position or contracted for in written agreements. Finally, tenure considerations clearly had an impact on one respondent in that he "chose to give up an administrative post" to "make (him) eligible for tenure."

In terms of promotion, eighteen individuals (40%) indicated they had been promoted prior to accepting the administrative role. Of the 27 remaining faculty who had not been promoted before accepting the role, 20 (74%) believed their administrative experience was factored into their promotion decision. Eighteen of these people responded with an average score of 5.61 (on a 10-point scale) when asked how much their administrative experience was factored into their promotion decision. When the entire group was then asked the question whether administrative roles should be considered in the promotion decision, thirty-three (73.3%) responded positively.

Role Performance

The study group also reported a decrease in effectiveness in meeting the traditional measures associated with tenure and promotion decisions, including reduction in teaching effectiveness (22.2%), research and scholarship (42.2%), student advising (22.2%), and professional activity (20%) after assuming the administrative role. Perhaps most telling, a significant percentage (86.7%) of the group were not aware of any written policies that delineated how performance in administrative roles specifically related to tenure and promotion decisions. Once again, the tension and competition between the professiorial role and the administrative role was apparent. One person felt that performance in administrative roles did not mix well with teaching and research, like "oil and water." Another felt it was "difficult to serve two programs, administration and teaching." Finally, advice was given to "be sure that the criteria for promotion and tenure are clearly spelled out in the contract."

Role Advice

The study group offered several recommendations for training individuals who are commencing in roles as part-time administrators as shown in Tables 5 and 6.

TABLE 5
Advice for Role Training

Type of Training	Number of Times Mentioned
Management workshops	17
Budgeting/accounting workshops	14
Information about college organization	5
Serve as an apprentice	4
Time management seminar	2
Communication skills seminar	2
Computer skills seminar	1

TABLE 6
Advice for Role Satisfaction

Recommendations	Number of Times Mentioned
Provide clear job descriptions	12
Provide adequate time	7
Provide clear role in college hierarchy	6
Provide feedback	5
Provide better communication	1

Recommendations centered around management workshops, budgeting and accounting seminars, college organization workshops, apprenticeships in administration, and other programs to develop administrative skills.

The study group offered recommendations for how institutional administrators could maximize satisfactions and minimize the dissatisfactions associated with part-time administrative roles. This advice was primarily directed toward establishing greater functional clarity about their positions. The suggestions centered around four common recommendations: provide job descriptions, provide adequate time, have the role be clear in the college hierarchy, and provide adequate feedback. One respondent felt it would be "helpful to press central administration for a clearly articulated job description," a "set of expectations." Another offered the advice that superiors make certain the "structure" of the role "is clear" and that "lines of authority" are "very clear." Concerning the need for feedback, one offered the counsel to "make sure that people know they are needed and appreciated." Clearly, the group felt the institution and the individual both would benefit from efforts to increase role clarity in the administrative position.

Relatedly, when the study group was asked what advice they would give someone contemplating a role that included a faculty contract with part-time administrative duties, their responses were similar to those offered above in order of frequency of response; be sure of responsibilities (16), budget time (6), defend your teaching area (3), and be certain of the amount of released time (2). The responses relate to the ambiguity and lack of clarity expressed earlier. One respondent recommended an "explicit explanation of duties," while another proffered the advice to "be prepared to budget your time wisely and not let one area dominate your time," and a third recommended that one "negotiate up front the release time as carefully as possible."

To gain an overall perspective about the role of part-time administrators, the respondents were asked, "how would you rate the concept of having faculty members perform part-time administrative duties?" The responses to this question characterized both the primary strengths and weaknesses associated with such arrangements. The group saw the primary strengths of such dual roles as providing a broader institutional perspective, bringing faculty and admini-

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stration closer together, responding to an institutional condition that some positions do not warrant a full-time person, and providing opportunities for faculty to engage in non-teaching related activities. To support these perspectives, one individual expressed that "faculty members need to have some idea as to what goes on in administration," and as a result, "commitment between faculty and administration would be much better." Another felt that "faculty need to be more aware of the complexities of running an institution." A third stated that "for small schools a good idea," in that it can "broaden the professional impact" and is "good for the institution to get these services." The dual role was also seen by some as a vehicle for faculty and administration to become closer and another felt that such a duty "prevents isolation in either faculty and administration." A final respondent aptly offered a balanced perspective: "every faculty member should have to do some administrative work to gain an understanding of the kind of effort that is involved and every administrator should have to teach at least one class involving 20 or more students; small colleges cannot afford the 'we vs. them' attitude that prevails."

Drawbacks seen by the study group were that the administrative role conflicted with the faculty role, and the degree of compatibility of these two roles would be highly dependent on the person involved. A major weakness the group perceived was the tendency of the role combination to create conflict with the traditional faculty role. One respondent stated that "faculty need to hone their teaching skills, research productivity and scholarly service components." The respondent felt administrative duties "dilute" the pure faculty role. One expressed the view that the "average faculty member is not equipped" to function in the dual role.

Discussion and Implications

This study provided a exploratory analysis of forty-five faculty who performed part-time administrative duties in eight small liberal arts colleges in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. Using primarily open-ended questions, the study examined multifaceted aspects of the part-time administrative role: demographics, qualities desired for the role, why individuals accepted the role or position, satisfactions and dissatisfactions associated with the role, the perceived value of the role, the impact of the role on performance, and advice for individuals who aspire to the part-time administrator position.

From this information, a profile of part-time administrators examined in this study can be advanced.

1. The individual who occupied this role was typically a senior faculty with tenure who had little experience for the position. This individual was given a reduced teaching load and paid a stipend for his/her assignment. In general, these individuals spent half of their time in administration and half in their teaching/scholar role.
2. When asked what qualities were necessary for serving in this role, the respondents indicated the importance of being organized and being good planners. They also felt that devotion to the assignment was important as well as strong interpersonal skills.
3. Why did they accept the position? While most were asked to serve, rather than volunteer, they indicated that they were interested in an administrative position, they wanted a new challenge, and they felt that the position would enhance their careers.
4. The study group talked about the joys and frustrations of this dual role. They liked seeing growth in areas

under their administration, they liked working with people, and they found their position to be influential in the institution. On the other hand, they spoke about the excessive time needed to be both faculty and administration, the challenges of working with budgets and with colleagues and superiors, and a general lack of clarity about their role in administration.

5. But was their dual role valued? While they felt that their positions were valued by superiors and other administrators, they were undervalued by faculty colleagues. Moreover, the part-time assignment was not seen as being well integrated into the campus environment. Besides no formal training and no clear guidelines for evaluation, the assignment held little influence in the processes central to a faculty worklife: promotion and tenure.
6. With questionable value as perceived by others, did the assignment positively impact performance in roles typically performed by faculty on small, private campuses? Most respondents felt that their part-time position had a negative impact, in varying degree on their professional roles, including reduced effectiveness in teaching, scholarship, advising, and professional activities.
7. What is the prognosis for this dual role, then, on a small, private campus? Both strengths and weaknesses were cited. It was a strength that individuals holding the dual assignments could obtain a broad institutional perspective, work closely with administrators and faculty, fulfill an institutional need, and provide experiences outside the routine faculty life. On the downside, however, the position seemed to conflict with the faculty role, and that it was up to individuals to remedy this conflict. These thoughts led to respondents advice in two areas: obtain some form of training for the position, and seek institutional clarification for the role and responsibilities of the part-time assignment.

On a more conceptual level, Figure 1 presents the dimensions of the part-time role explored in this study. Organizing the concepts into a conceptual model, one might argue that they are interrelated and form a chronological "life-cycle" model of the career of a part-time administrator. Individuals enter the part-time position with certain demographic characteristics that interact with their own personal qualities. These factors contribute to their appointment in a part-time position. While in this position, they experience satisfactions and dissatisfactions, mediated by such factors as the perceived value of their role by others, and the integration of the role in the campus environment and the reward system. Their satisfaction and dissatisfactions, mediated by the perceived value of their role, in turn, influences their job performance, especially their performance assessed in terms of typical faculty roles. Changes to a reduced performance in the faculty role may be influenced by better integration of their role in the academy and forms of preparation for the position.

The larger conceptual issue is what theoretical models might inform this "life-stage" process as study of the part-time administrator proceeds? One alternative would be the sequential career stage model (e.g., Baldwin, 1984) that advances the stages characterized by demands, motivations, rewards, and professional development needs. This model, developed for and applied to college faculty, has its origin in the older adult developmental theories such as those of Super (1957), and Hall & Nougaim (1968). An alternative conceptualization is based in socialization theory in which one would examine part-time administrator's careers in terms of broad forces such as national, professional, disciplinary, institutional, and individual forces (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). A more promising conceptualization would be the "life-course" model which places an emphasis on the interactions between the individual and his or her social environment over the life course (Clark & Corcoran, 1989). Such a model seems well-suited for the study of part-time administrators on small, private colleges because of the interaction between those holding the positions and the environment that either values or devalues the role may strongly impact the degree of satisfaction in it and ultimately the level of performance both within the position and in typical faculty responsibilities.

An entirely different perspective to future study of the part-time administrator would be the methodological approach to use. While the conceptual model in Figure 1 lends itself to quantitative analysis, the state of the knowledge about the position remains exploratory. Within this perspective, one might use qualitative approaches to better conceptualize the role of the position. Such an approach might employ grounded theory design (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) where the interviewing goes beyond identifying descriptively the dimensions of the role (e.g., acceptance, value, satisfiers) and probes the interrelationships of the categories of information in Figure 1. Hypotheses might be advanced to interviewees to determine whether, for example, those who are appointed to the position (role acceptance) perceive value of their role by superiors but not by faculty colleges (value of role). This, in turn, might lessen the collaboration with faculty colleagues (satisfier), and lead to lower performance as a faculty member but not as a part-time administrator (performance). Examining

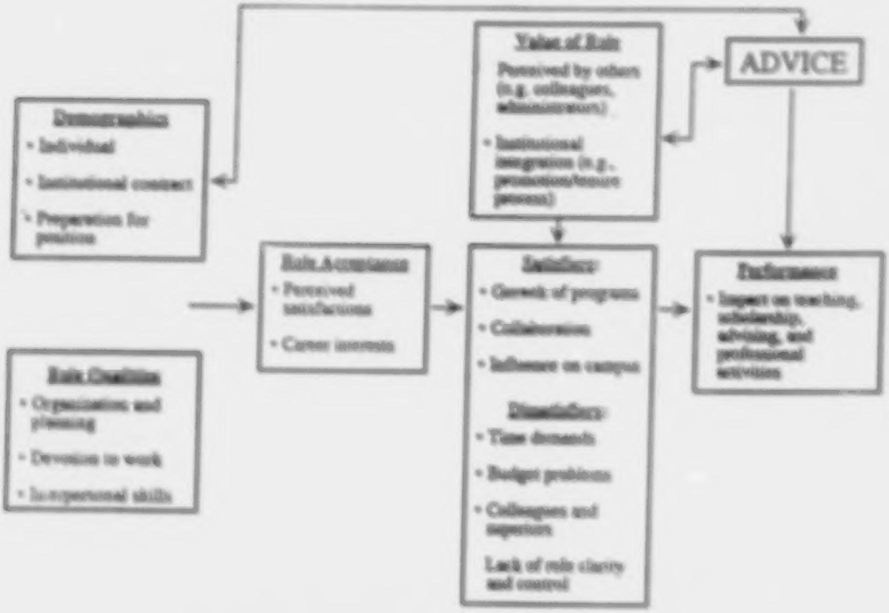
Demographics
• Individual
• Institutional contract
• Preparation for position
Role Qualities
• Organization and planning
• Devotion to work
• Interpersonal skills
Role Acceptance
• Perceived satisfactions
• Career interests
Value of Role
Perceived by others (e.g. colleagues, administrators)
• Institutional integration (e.g., promotion/tenure process)
ADVICE
Satisfiers
• Growth of programs
• Collaboration
• Influence on campus
Dissatisfiers
• Time demands
• Budget problems
• Colleagues and superiors
Lack of role clarity and control
Performance
• Impact on teaching, scholarship, advising, and professional activities

Figure 1. A conceptual model of the role of part-time administrators in small, private liberal arts colleges.

potential relationships such as these can help elaborate the model in Figure 1 and determine under what conditions the role is enacted. An alternative qualitative methodology would be to undertake some indepth case studies (Merriam, 1988) of individuals who differ in their perceptions of perceived roles and isolate some cases where the part-time administrator is well-integrated into the campus reward system and another case where the reverse is true. These cases might assist campus personnel on small, liberal arts colleges to reflect on the value of the part-time administrator and enact strategies for rewarding and valuing the position.

These types of future studies would enhance the understanding of the present analysis of part-time administrators. Admittedly, the analysis here is exploratory and may lack the depth provided by an elaborated conceptualization of the role aspects or an indepth study of individuals. A theory-base, too, can enrich the discussion and provide a means for better predicting and understanding the roles of these individuals. Moving beyond the eight campuses studied here would provide an understanding with greater potential for generalization to the many private, liberal arts campuses in the United States.

These limitations aside, the study has started the discussion about a type of position on small, liberal arts campuses that has been unexplored in past literature. It has mapped several dimensions of the role of part-time administrators on these campuses, and created a profile of their characteristics. The model generated from this analysis holds potential, both quantitatively (through its ties to theory) and qualitatively (through grounded theory and case study methodologies). For faculty who assume these positions and for campus personnel who reward, value, and appoint individuals to part-time administration, the dialogue has begun.

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Steve Kokivich is a Professor of Education at Muskingum College.

Charles Drubel is an Associate Professor of Business at Muskingum College.

John W. Creswell is a Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Appendix A
Constructs, Variables, Scaling

Constructs Measured	Variables/Questions	Scaling
Role Individual and Institutional Demographics	•Gender? •Years at institution? •Years taught at institution? •Department affiliation? •Faculty rank? •Title of position? •Length of service in position? •Held similar position? •% contract in admin.? •% time in admin.? •Length of contract? •Report to? •Seek or asked to serve? •Experience in mgt. training? •Formal preparation - by inst.? •Reduction in teaching? •Paid a stipend?	•open-ended questions •rating scales
Role qualities	•what personal qualities are absolutely necessary for position?	•open-ended question
Role acceptance	•why did you accept this position?	•open-ended question
Role satisfactions/dissatisfactions	•what satisfactions/frustrations have you experienced with administrative aspects of position?	•open-ended question
Perceived role value	•by administration? •by immediate superior? •role considered in tenure? •role considered in promotion? •a written policy about position in ref. to promotion/tenure? •gained from experience? •is position valued by colleagues? •written job description present? •receipt of written evaluation?	•dichotomous - yes, no
Role performance	•degree of effectiveness in teaching? •degree of effectiveness in scholarship? •degree of effectiveness in prof. activities? •degree of effectiveness in advising?	•rating scale - positive to negative
Role advice	•general advice? •recommendations to minimize dissatisfactions? •recommendations for training? •overall attitude toward role?	•open-ended

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By Kenneth A. Thompson

Mentoring, Counseling, and Advising: A Coordinated Approach for Reentry and Nontraditional Women

This is an overview of selected articles that examine the difficulties women find in integrating into the traditionally male-dominated environment of higher education. This discussion links various causes—cultural, socioeconomic, and institutional—that contribute to problems women have in the back-to-college transition.

SOCIAL OR CULTURAL patterns, outgrowths of prejudice, have impeded development of self-concepts among women and have slowed, and at times prevented, women's integration into many areas of activity in society. Traditionally male-dominated professions, along with higher education institutions, have been slow to respond. Many traditions, particularly those of academia, still reflect male-oriented, pre-twentieth century society. This is not to say that radical change has not occurred—it surely has. The changing demographics in higher education which reflect a growing proportion of women among student populations clearly demonstrate change. But it seems universally true that deeply ingrained attitudes remain resistant to change while surface change runs its course.

For institutions to adapt, they must either wait while the inevitable subsurface change eventually occurs, or they must actively develop policy to facilitate and promote it. During times of rapid and often uncomfortable transition, institutions are challenged to both reflect and lead society. Meeting the needs of nontraditional and reentry women is essential if institutions are to remain influential in the larger social construct.

The influx of women, particularly nontraditional and reentry women, to post-secondary education has resulted from changes in society's expectations of them. They have entered the workforce in ever-increasing numbers during the twentieth century, especially since they began to work in traditionally male-held occupations during World War II. Economic factors in the latter half of the twentieth century have placed pressures on women in traditional intact families to become wage-earners alongside their husbands. Increasingly, single and divorced women have become heads-of-household, thus creating new pressures. Many women are responding to these pressures by entering colleges and universities in record numbers.

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Regardless of age and level of education, women are living in a "period of transition from one social system to another . . . Few changes in American society during recent decades are more radical than the changes in the status of women (Komarovsky, 1985, p. 3)". In some instances, institutions have responded to changing demographics by developing systems of service for nontraditional students, and sometimes for women in particular, but such efforts have been neither universal nor consistent. Chater and Hatch (1991 have charged that

> [although] . . . by the year 2000, approximately 66 percent of all new employees in the labor market will be women . . . programs to enable women to share in professional growth and achievement are at least 20 years behind current needs. (p. 34)

They called for changes in attitude as they likened the difficulties of women in the workforce to those of women on colleges campuses.

Lewis (1988) provided an overview of who returning women are, noting that they represent a broad cross-section not to be narrowly categorized. She cited earlier discussions that characterized returning women as most frequently motivated by boredom, self-fulfillment, and career preparation (Astin, 1976; Durcholz & O'Conner, 1976) but added that earlier research was not conducted to include all returning women. More recent studies have demonstrated a wide variety of motivating factors, with none in particular being predominant. Lewis stressed the uniqueness of each reentry woman and the need for institutions to meet their unique and diverse needs.

One factor that distinguishes reentry women from traditional-aged students is their multiple-role status. Gender-role conflicts are common. Reentry is a "transitional time, when the presence or absence of institutional and personal support can make the difference between continuing participation and dropping out (Lewis, 1988, p. 8)." Schlossberg, Lynch, and Chichering (1989) have referred to the phases experienced by adult learners as a transition process with "three main parts: *moving into* the learning environment, *moving through* it, and preparing to leave, or *moving on*" (p. 15). These observations raise the question of how a coordinated and synthesized approach to meeting the needs of nontraditional reentry women would look if it were to provide consistent support during the entire educational process.

A comprehensive program would include advisement and counseling during the entire recruitment, admission, and orientation phase, and would be accomplished by staff and faculty who had received training in the issues of nontraditional and reentry women, both institutional barriers and personal concerns. Mentoring would begin in this early phase to effect assimilation to the academic environment and to assist the student in establishing a positive self-concept in relation to the new environment. Mentoring would continue during the moving through phase with a slight shift in focus toward assisting students to maintain positive self-images and to develop coping and problem-solving techniques as needs arise. The final phase, moving on, begins as the student nears completion, and focus then shifts toward professional concerns and away from academic issues. This phase entails transition and it should be remembered:

> . . . that the crisis of identity is reawakened whenever an individual experiences a major transition . . . when the major source of self— whether work, family, community, or some combination—is changed or eliminated, a crisis can occur. (Schlossberg, Lynch, & Chickering, 1989)

Each of the three phases—moving in, moving through, and moving on—provides an opportunity or even a mandate for two types of support—institutional and personal.

The two types of support describe two often-cited categories of barriers. Robertson (1991) addressed some areas in which the needs of nontraditional women students differ from those of other students; policies of service eligibilities for housing, health care, library use, course sequencing and scheduling, financial aid may discriminate against part-time and intermittent learners. The issues he raised reflect that institutions have "built-in" barriers which serve to make this segment of the student population feel alienated and unwelcome. In order to counter this, institutions should develop ways to assist these students during the entire educational process from recruitment to the post-graduation phase. Lewis (1988) summarized institutional barriers that affect the reentry woman: eligibility requirements for admission, transferability of old credits may be difficult, the lack of practice of awarding life-experience credit, institutional discouragement of part-time student needs (scheduling of classes and services), lack of child care, and financial aid limitations on assistance for part-time students. Women returning to college, according to Lewis, either do not choose to use support services or are not aware of them, and thus do not benefit from them.

Awareness of institutional barriers is not a solution unless it leads to policy change which will occur slowly at best. An effective way to circumvent the effects of institutional barriers is to provide support services that directly address specific needs of the nontraditional, reentry female student population. In order to provide women with the necessary assistance for understanding institutional complexities and coping with a bureaucracy that has evolved to meet the needs of the younger student population, a systematic mentoring/counseling/advising program should involve all segments of an academic community from faculty and staff to graduate students and experienced undergraduates. Such a program would entail in-service training for faculty and staff along with creating a system for coordinating services and for opening lines of communication to promote awareness in all segments of the academic community.

Lewis (1988) called for recognition of reentry women's concerns by remarking that, "Many returning women will ask for help and support, but others will not. The need for services that provide orientation, assimilation, counseling, support, financial aid, and childcare cannot be overestimated, yet it is obvious that differences in reentry populations will necessitate varying student personnel policies and approaches (p. 10)." A central office where all services are delivered cannot make contact with every student requiring services. Campus-wide awareness and appropriate referrals can overcome this limitation. Key roles must be taken by faculty and other staff, as concern for student needs becomes a system-wide effort.

Student services that address reentry women's needs are important factors in overcoming institutional barriers, but less concrete and tangible personal barriers should also be addressed. The same systematic approach that involves faculty, staff, and student mentors should be used for this purpose. The personal barriers to successful reentry among nontraditional women are well documented. Such difficulties include lack of confidence in one's academic abilities, the feeling of not belonging because of age difference, the conflicts inherent in a multiple-role status, and women's self-perceptions which have been shaped by society during a time of dramatic social change.

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The conflict between the nontraditional female student and her own background was expressed by the question: "Can a woman, socialized during the 'Ozzie and Harriet' years, reared in a 'neo-Victorian' family. . . become a credible professional after the onset of her 'mid-life crisis'? (Walker, 1992, p. 2)." The self-perception of women as they reenter college may not be compatible with the new identity they are striving to attain. Women may not see themselves as authorities or as able to create knowledge.

In a discussion of reentry women's self-confidence issues, Tarule (1988) names five "epistemological positions from which women view the world: silence, received knowing, subjective knowing, procedural knowing, and constructed knowing." The view of silence is the phenomenon of women experiencing themselves as without power, voice, or mind. Received knowers, according to Tarule, do not believe they can create knowledge. Subjective knowing refers to a belief that knowledge is constructed and the learner is isolated from this process. Women look to authorities for how to learn (procedure), and see "knowledge as contextual" (constructed). Tarule concludes the first section of her article with the observation that women's experiences make reentry to educational settings an entry into an "alien environment."

The perception that the environment is "alien" must be addressed in a comprehensive program in order to meet reentry women's needs. Swoboda and Millar (1986) referred to "women in higher education, business, and government" as "outsiders on the inside (p. 8)." These authors were addressing issues of professionals in their discussion. That they stressed the importance of mentoring for women faculty and administrators points to the necessity for ongoing support. Faculty, staff, and students should be encouraged to see role-modeling and mentoring as a continuing and necessary process in order to assist reentry women to understand and to accept their own changing identities during the entire continuing transitional process.

Lewis (1988) offered a list of thirty ways to facilitate reentry, and suggested its use as a checklist for committed policymakers. Lewis' suggestions are included as an appendix to this paper. Evaluation of policy and attention to the ongoing demographic change are strongly recommended. "Institutional credibility" (strong institutional commitment) will be a determining factor in the success of reentry women (p. 15). Lewis emphasized that programs for reentry women must not be perceived as "marginal." Most of Lewis' suggestions relate to institutional barriers. The suggestions that spoke to personal barriers were: sensitization of teachers and staff in order to provide better service, providing meeting places specifically for this group, development of support groups, and "support services to alleviate the developmental stress (p. 15)." However, it is important for institutions to go beyond the suggestions of Lewis by enlisting full participation of faculty and administrator in a comprehensive mentoring program that provides reentry women with role-models.

A comprehensive system of providing an environment that encourages the reentry woman in all aspects of the transitional process—moving in, moving through, and moving on—will involve the entire campus community. Increased interaction between students and faculty/staff would entail out-of- classroom activities. Such a program would require a refocusing effort in terms of how faculty and staff perceive their roles. This type of program would require radical institutional change rather than the addition of a structural entity. Instead of a policy change or set of changes, a change in the working relationships, functions, and roles of administrators, faculty, staff and students is called for.

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Kenneth A. Thompson is a retired military officer with undergraduate and graduate degrees in education from Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. He is a graduate of both the U.S. Marine Corps Command and Staff College, and the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College, where he also served as an Instructor. Mr. thompson currently resides in Staunton, Illinois, and operates a training consultantship that provides needs assessment, program planning and development, and training program delivery systems for corporations in the private business and industry sector. He also serves as a program design consultant and adjunct professor at several international universities. His work has been with adult learners in workplace learning environments and other alternative classrooms. Nontraditional student concerns have been the focus of his research interests.

APPENDIX

Thirty Ways to Facilitate Reentry (Lewis, 1988)

1. Initiate campaigns to attract reentry women. Develop strategies and materials for reaching potential women students and special-needs reentry populations (single parents, displaced homemakers, minorities, older women).
2. Publish handbooks, newsletters, and newspapers designed to meet the needs of returning women that contain tips from other reentry women.
3. Disseminate literature about offerings and programs throughout the community to places that are frequented by potential returning women (childcare centers, doctors' offices, churches and synagogues, laundromats, supermarkets, public assistance offices).
4. Develop spot announcements for radio and television and place ads in local newspapers to attract returning women.
5. Organize conferences and special days for reentry women, for those who are considering continuing education or who have made previous contacts. Include other reentry women as recruiters and encourage peer counseling.
6. Set up special telephone lines that returning students can call evenings and weekends for course and enrollment information.
7. Establish extended hours for administrative offices and support services.
8. Develop training to sensitize teachers and staff who will be working with returning women, so that they can provide better service.
9. Identify reentry liaisons who are willing to serve as contacts for returning women, and publish their names in a directory for potential or newly enrolled women.
10. Evaluate women's childcare needs and, as necessary, provide a variety of childcare services (cooperative arrangements with other schools or businesses, evening and weekend care).
11. Set up registration processes to ensure that part-time returning women will have access to the classes they need.
12. Conduct specially designed orientation sessions that returning women are strongly encouraged to attend, and review financial aid eligibility, describe support services, and respond to questions.
13. Hold special receptions and open houses to introduce reentry women to women's networks, career opportunities, and reentry peers.
14. Offer preadmission and career counseling to assist prospective returning women students in decision making.
15. Offer a wide range of basic skills and refresher courses, at convenient times and locations, geared to the specific concerns of returning women. Provide self-paced individualized instructional programs, guidebooks, cassettes, and videos to enable women to brush up at home on their study skills.
16. Set aside scholarships for needy returning women students who do not qualify for federal aid, and provide lists of private organizations and corporate sponsors that offer financial assistance.
17. Develop tuition incentive programs, along with "givebacks" for those who

have other family members enrolled in an educational program.

18. On the basis of the services that reentry women are interested in using, develop flexible payment plans and policies for increasing or reducing fees.
19. Allow for the fulfillment of residency requirements through part-time enrollment, internships, practice, and independent study.
20. Provide lounges and designated meeting places where returning women and other commuters can socialize with peers.
21. Reserve centrally located parking for part-time students, and publicize the availability of commuter or minibus services that are offered by the school, community organizations, or municipal departments.
22. Provide short-term and emergency housing for part-time returning women who travel long distances.
23. Facilitate the development of support groups for returning women to discuss issues of personal concern.
24. Provide counseling services that help women look realistically at their options, life plans, personal growth, and career development.
25. Develop support services to alleviate the developmental stress for women who are at different stages in the reentry process, as well as in their own lives.
26. Provide flexible and varied scheduling options by offering courses once a week, late afternoons, or evenings. Explore options such as innovative weekend programs, internships, external degree programs, and modular courses.
27. Offer a variety of options to encourage participation, such as noncredit, pass/fail, and conditional admission.
28. Encourage instructors to be available at nontraditional times and to establish telephone hours for those who are unable to meet in person.
29. Redesign requirements so as to eliminate artificial criteria that adversely affect returning women. To assess potential, use other evaluative criteria: volunteer experience, committee membership, autobiographical statements, portfolios of past experience, self-report, and self-evaluation.
30. Evaluate the content and style of questions on information forms to ensure that they are not biased against mature women (for example, "Parents' Names and Address[es]").

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Annotated Bibliography: Issues Affecting Reentry Women in Higher Education

Chater, S., & Hatch, A. (1991). Student, worker, mom on campus, in need. *Educational Record, 72*(1), 32-37.

Chater and Hatch described the increasing population of women nontraditional students and the large subpopulation within it of women who are parents—married, single, and divorced. According to these authors, programs to help these women catch up in "professional growth and achievement are at least 20 years behind current needs." The authors review the many statistics which show the changing demographics in higher education and then discuss the obstacles faced by this group in the academic setting. Aside from the obvious multiple-role time and energy demands, these authors explain the social barriers ("norms, roles, and stereotypes") that affect women. The article is a call for changes in policy which reflect the changes in demographics.

Christian, C., & Wilson, J. (1985). Reentry women and feminist therapy: A career counseling model. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 26*(1), 496-500.

The model discussed in this article is based on Richardson's (1979) definition of career counseling (facilitation of choices in occupational and familial roles). The differences between feminist therapy and traditional psychotherapy were also used in developing the model. Three additional factors were: developmental structure, problems as perceived by the women themselves, and facilitation of nontraditional career choices.

These authors outlined "awarenesses and skills" necessary for counselors, then outlined three stages of the model. Stage 1 is a stabilization stage; Stage 2 is a personal growth stage; and Stage 3 is action-oriented. Christian and Wilson recommend that counselors interested in reentry women's issues should become involved in outreach and recruitment as well as committees which influence institutional policies that affect this population by retaining institutional barriers based on stereotypes.

Komarovsky, M. (1985). *Women in college: Shaping new identities.* N. Y.: Basic Books, Inc.

This book reports the findings of a four-year longitudinal study of women students at a women's college (one of the "Seven Sisters"). In three parts, Komarovsky explores the issues facing women in this particular college environment: the transition to college (integration into the college community, changing self-concepts, family and peer-group relations); the women's issues of career, marriage, and motherhood and how attitudes change during college; and role concept with respect to gender.

This study used both qualitative and quantitative methods, but was limited to a specific type of college which does not attract a broad cross-section including nontraditional students. Additionally, the student population does not reflect a cross-section of socioeconomic backgrounds. The introduction, however, contains a discussion of the social changes that have occurred recently which have affected women's self-concepts in the academic and social milieus.

Lewis, L. H. (1988). Ingredients of successful programming. In L. H. Lewis, (Ed.), *Addressing the needs of returning women: New directions for continuing education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, No. 39, Fall, 1988.

In an introductory chapter to this volume of collected articles, Lewis provides an overview of who returning women are, noting that they represent a broad cross-section not to be narrowly categorized. Lewis gave an overview of earlier discussions that characterized returning women as most frequently motivated by boredom, self-fulfillment, and career preparation (Astin, 1976; Durcholz & O'Conner, 1976). Lewis said that eariler research was not conducted to include all returning women. More recent research has demonstrated a wide variety of motivating factors, with none in particular being predominant. Lewis stressed the uniqueness of each reentry woman and the need for institutions to meet these unique and diverse needs.

One single factor, according to Lewis, that distinguishes reentry women from traditional-aged students, is their multiple-role status. Gender-role conflicts are common. Reentry, Lewis said, is a "transitional time, when the presence or absence of institutional and personal support can make the difference between continuing participation and dropping out (p. 8)."

Personal situations, including self-expectations, create difficulties or anxieties about one's own abilities. Previous educational experiences may be a negative factor in reentry women's self-confidence. Lewis pointed out that some lack of self-confidence is not warranted citing Hall's (1981) finding that individual reentry students earn better grades than they had earned during previous enrollments. Lewis also said that Leppell (1984) found that reentry women had higher grades when compared with traditional female students. Attitudes toward part-time students are also a factor—they may be seen as not serious students. Another problem faced by women reentry students is their concern with not fitting in due to their age. Feeling guilty about their multiple-role status is also a personal barrier, with the responsibilities of parenting being an important problem.

Lewis called for recognition of reentry women's concerns by remarking that, "Many returning women will ask for help and support, but others will not. The need for services that provide orientation, assimilation, counseling, support, financial aid, and childcare cannot be overestimated, yet it is obvious that differences in reentry populations will necessitate varying student personnel policies and approaches." (p. 10).

A summary is offered of institutional barriers that affect the reentry woman: eligibility requirements for admission, transferrability of old credits may be difficult, the lack of practice of awarding life-experience credit, institutional discouragement of part-time student needs (scheduling of classes and services), lack of child care, financial aid limitations on assistance for part-time students. Women returing to college, according to Lewis, either do not choose to use support services or are not aware of them, and thus do not benefit from them. (p. 13).

Lewis offered a list of thirty ways to facilitate reentry, and suggested its use as a checklist for committed policymakers. Evaluation of policy and attention to ongoing demographic shange are strongly recommended. "Institutional credibility" (strong institutional commitment) will be a determining factor in the success of reentry women. (p. 15). Lewis emphasized that programs for reentry women must not be perceived as "marginal."

Redding, N. P., & Dowling, W. D. (1992). Rites of passage among women reentering higher education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 42*(4), 221-236.

In this study, 19 women (in intact marriages and with children) were interviewed. A literature review was offered in which the authors explained the term "rites of passage" as an anthropological coinage. A discussion of relevant research in the area of women reentry students and barriers to their success was also included. In this portion of the literature review, there was a concise summary of Mezirow's findings about perspective transformations which occur as women refine and redefine themselves in the process of degree attainment.

The respondents in this study were volunteers and were interviewed following the principles of naturalistic inquiry (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). The findings were in two areas: rites of passage in the university and its procedures and requirements, and rites of passage in the family setting. Most "emerging ceremonials" were in the family rather than the academic setting. Among suggestions offered was that university counselors recognize the needs of this population in both settings and accomodate those needs by providing support services which address more than the academic setting. Involving or including the families of reentry women in university activities is one suggested means of accomplishing this.

Robertson, D. L. (1991). Gender differences in the academic progress of adult undergraduates: Patterns and policy implications. *Journal of College Student Development*, 32, 490-496.

The study discussed in this article was undertaken to explore the question of whether gender differences was a factor in the academic success of adult college students. Citing numerous studies of differences in male and female "life course and psychology," Robertson explained that the male perspective "frequently serves as the generalized human perspective." The study population was comprised of graduates from one "nontraditional" liberal arts college during a two-year period. Subjects had entered the college at age 25 or older (N=235). Graduates were studied because degree achievement was operationally defined as success. Data were limited to transcript information, and 12 variables were studied (6 interruption and 6 speed of progress). Men progressed more rapidly from admission to graduation, and women experienced more interruptions (quarters not enrolled). Most subjects were transfer students and on average, started with the same number of credits left to complete.

Women who took no breaks progressed as rapidly as men who did the same. The findings supported the "hypothesis that men and women have different patterns regarding academic progress." Among policy implications was that models of full-time, fall-to-spring enrollment tend to discriminate against large categories of adult learners. Financial aid policies requiring satisfactory progress with no allowance for stopping out also discriminate. Also mentioned were service eligibilities for housing, health care, library use, etc. Admission status, residency, course sequences, prerequisites, and time limits may also be indicated by policy that does not consider this student population.

Swoboda, M. J., & Millar, S. B. (1986). Networking-mentoring: Career strategy of women in academic administration. *Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, & Counselors, 50*, 8-13.

Swoboda and Millar refer to "women in higher education, business, and government" as "outsiders on the inside." They described a conference for women in higher education which offered the opportunity for women to explore the "meaning and role of mentoring in their careers." Using traditional mentoring examples, the authors describe types of mentoring that have been important to women in academia: grooming-mentoring and networking-mentoring. Grooming-mentoring has several stages: a teaching and coaching stage, a psychological support stage, and an institutional support stage in which the mentor actively promotes the mentee. There are risks involved in this type of mentoring: it often depends on favoritism, and mentees may be tokens. Networking-mentoring relationships do not "selectively promote women," but rather foster self-reliance and entail more information sharing and support.

Tarule, J. M. (1988). Voices of returning women: Ways of knowing. In In L. H. Lewis (Ed.), *Addressing the needs of returning women: New directions for continuing education.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, No. 39, Fall, 1988, 19-34.

Tarule's article was based on theory about reentry women and the stories they have related about their experiences. She used the metaphors in the film *Educating Rita* as illustrations throughout her discussion. The theoretical discussion was constructed around three perspectives: voice (ability to articulate), connected knowing, and developmental position. Each perspective reflects what are considered as desirable educational outcomes. Voice, according to Tarule, refers to both articulation of ideas and strategies for acquiring ideas. Women are said to have a "different voice." Women tend to engage in connected learning that entails personal and experiential—relationships between learner and subject, learner and teacher, and between life and the material learned.

Tarule named five "epistemological positions from which women view the world: silence, received knowing, subjective knowing, procedural knowing, and constructed knowing." The view of silence is the phenomenon of women experiencing themselves as without power, voice, or mind. Received knowers, according to Tarule, do not believe they can create knowledge. Subjective knowing refers to a belief that knowledge is constructed and the learner is isolated from this process. Women look to the authorities for how to learn (procedure), and see "knowledge as contextual" (constructed). Tarule observed that women's experiences make reentry to educational settings an entry into an "alien environment."

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Ellen Herbeson & Patricia A. Post

A Formative Evaluation of the New Brunswick Community College Instructor Development Program

The University of New Brunswick Instructor Development Program (IDP) provides instructor training for New Brunswick Community College personnel. This formative evaluation of the IDP was conducted to determine if the program could be improved to better suit the needs of those involved. Data collected through a self-evaluation questionnaire and interviews indicate that the program is responsive to and is meeting the needs of the participants. There is, however, a need for information about the program to be disseminated to community college personnel.

IN MAY 1989, the Department of Adult and Vocational Education of the University of New Brunswick (UNB) and the Department of Advanced Education and Training (DAET) entered into an agreement requiring UNB to develop and make available an array of training programs for personnel at the five Anglophone New Brunswick Community College campuses (NBCC) and the New Brunswick College of Craft and Design. UNB designed these programs, which begin with the Instructor Development Summer Program (IDP), so that participants, if they desire, may use the credits to progress toward completion of a UNB Certificate in Adult Education and/or a Bachelor of Education in Adult Education.

The IDP is a 27 credit hour program for new NBCC teaching personnel, taken over two consecutive summers with a practicum between the two summers. The summers are residential; that is, participants are urged to come and stay on campus for the duration of the summer school. Participants are chosen for the program by the DAEL Human Resources Department. To qualify for the program one must have taught for NBCC for one year and be a full or term employee. Instructors who have alternative forms of teacher certification, such as a B.Ed. are exempt from the program. Criteria for the program are applied liberally and if a DAEL employee is interested in the program and space is available, he or she will most likely be permitted to register. Participants in the program are compensated by the DAEL to various degrees depending on their status with the DAEL. The DAEL does pay the tuition costs for all participants.

The overall goal of the IDP is to introduce new community college instructors to the theory and practice of adult

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education. The objective of the first summer is to provide instructors with practical ways to plan and implement the curriculum that they teach using the principles of adult education. The first summer consists of three courses: methods and strategies in adult education, understanding the adult learner, and communication practices. During the practicum, which is carried out between the two summers, instructors have the opportunity to assess their teaching performance with the assistance of a peer consultant. The peer consultant is chosen from a recent graduate of the program, preferably someone who is finishing the second year of the program and does not teach in the same field or discipline. In the second summer two courses are offered. Besides examining in greater depth the practical aspects of topics such as program planning, implementation and evaluation, instructors are challenged to review and reflect upon their experiences in their respective teaching-learning settings.

In the fall of 1993, DAEL requested that UNB conduct a formative evaluation of the IDP. The intent of the evaluation was to determine if the IDP is perceived to be effective, from a variety of perspectives, in providing teacher training to new NBCC instructors and if the program is valued by those involved in it.

Method of Evaluation

A responsive model of evaluation seemed most suitable for the IDP evaluation for a number of reasons. A responsive model allows for the direct involvement of the major stakeholders. "An educational evaluation is responsive if it orients more directly to program activities than program intents; responds to audience requirements for information; and if the different value perspectives present are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the program" (Stake, 1975, p. 14).

An accepted presupposition about any evaluation is that the results will be used and "if we return to the prime assumption that a successful evaluation is one that is used, then clearly one of the most effective ways of getting the evidence used is to involve the stakeholders in as much of the evaluation as possible" (Krathwohl, 1993, p.538). Stakeholders in the IDP include the learners and their supervisors, the UNB coordinator, the instructional staff from UNB, and the DAEL human resource manager as a representative of the government funding agency.

This evaluation was conducted in three parts: needs assessment and information collection, self-evaluation questionnaires, and interviews. As a first step, the IDP evaluation was announced to the Deans and Department Heads of the community college campuses by DAEL. Personnel were advised that the evaluation would occur and their suggestions or advice on any further information they solicited considered valuable to this evaluation. This information would then be incorporated into the next phases of the evaluation.

Once feedback had been received from the Deans and Department Heads, a questionnaire, in the form of a self-evaluation, was designed to survey program graduates to determine their perceptions of themselves as educators and the responsiveness of the environment in which they work. The self-evaluation asked program graduates to assess their own abilities as educators in relation to their environment and the IDP. "[S]elf-evaluations can be used to gain a better perception of learning in an institution, thus benefiting the faculty..." (Waluconis, 1993, p.244).

The self-evaluation instrument was pilot tested on 42 adult education students at UNB. Following revisions, the instrument was sent to all graduates of the IDP since 1989 (n=71). The questionnaire asked graduates to respond to 40 statements using a Likert-type scale and to provide written comments in the last section. The statements used in the questionnaire were drawn from the principles of adult education; (Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980; Cranton, 1989) with a particular focus on whether the learning environment created by the respondent in his/her classes was learner-centred. Statements used in the survey are listed in Table 1.

In survey research there is the concern that respondents will answer in a more positive manner if they know they are participating in a study. Assuring anonymity and the use of a self-administered form should reduce the perception of any threat that answering the survey honestly may pose to the respondents (Sudman and Bradburn, 1985).

When the surveys were returned and analyzed, these results and the information collected from college personnel who had responded to the DAEL announcement, yielded the areas to be investigated further through personal interviews. From a list of all persons who had graduated from the IDP since 1989 and all department heads who had personnel attend the program in the same time period, a random sample of five department heads and five program graduates (two from 1989, two from 1992, and one from 1993) was chosen to be interviewed. Two final interviews were conducted with educators who had taught in the IDP program since its inception.

Results and Analyses

Questionnaires

Of the 71 questionnaires sent out, 53 were returned, a response rate of 74%. Responses were received from each of the campuses and the NB College of Craft and Design. Of the 48 useable responses, seven were from participants who had graduated in 1989, six in 1990, 12 in 1991, 12 in 1992, and 11 in 1993. In addition to their IDP certificate, respondents reported a varied educational background ranging from high school G.E.D. to Masters degrees.

The questionnaire was analyzed for descriptive statistics using SPSS/PC. The comments were analyzed for content. The means and standard deviation for each of the survey responses are reported in Table 1. The following scale was used in the survey. NO! = 1, no = 2, yes and no = 3, yes = 4, and **YES!** = 5. Therefore, the responses would range from "1" for total disagreement to "5" for total agreement.When considering responses which are 4.1 and above, it becomes evident that respondents believe that the courses for which they are responsible are planned according to course objectives (4.2), that class time is well-spent (4.1); that students are involved in formative evaluation of their courses (4.2) that they, as instructors, are available for consultation with their students (4.5); that they are effective communicators in the classroom explaining how students will be evaluated (4.5), using a variety of instructional techniques (4.2), using examples to illustrate or clarify material (4.5), and summarizing major points (4.3). They indicated that it is most important that what they teach is relevant to their students (4.5) and that it also relates to real life situations (4.4).

In areas which concern individual student development, respondents were not quite as strong. They tend to ask thought provoking questions (3.9), foster independent learning (4.0), and critical thinking (3.7).

TABLE 1: Results of the IDP Survey

Statement	*Mean*	*SD*
I explain the objectives for each class session and learning activity.	3.8	.99
I think class time is well-spent.	4.1	.68
I plan my classes to meet the course objectives.	4.2	.79
I ask for feedback from my students on how each course is going.	4.2	.83
I ask for feedback from my students after each course is finished.	3.9	1.0
I am available for personal consultation.	4.5	.79
I use examples or illustrations to clarify material.	4.5	.65
I summarize or emphasize major points in lectures or discussions.	4.3	.84
I provide meaningful written comments or feedback.	3.6	1.2
Materials and activities are suitable for the students' abilities.	3.8	.85
Early in the course I tell students how they will be evaluated.	4.5	.68
I periodically inform students of their progress.	4.0	.79
I allow for individual differences in the evaluation procedures.	3.3	1.1
I change teaching strategies based on the results of evaluations.	3.8	1.0
My students tell me that they are learning a great deal in my courses.	3.9	.71
My students tell me that they are challenged by the content of the course.	4.0	.82
My students tell me that they are inspired to explore the subject matter of courses further.	3.4	.96
Students have input into the objectives of my courses.	2.9	1.2
I take individual students' needs and interests into account in the course objectives.	3.3	1.3
When students are not keeping up, I adjust the pace of the course.	3.3	1.1
I ask thought-provoking questions.	3.9	.77
I encourage students to ask each other questions.	3.8	.91
I encourage students to respond to questions asked by other students.	3.7	.93
I encourage students to summarize discussions.	3.3	1.2
I use a variety of instructional techniques.	4.2	.78
I am skilful in using audio-visual materials.	3.8	.90
Students have the opportunity to use different materials (books, etc.).	4.2	.82
I encourage students to work on different assignments or projects.	3.9	1.3
I allow students to choose their own topics for assignments.	3.0	1.3
I relate the subject matter to real world situations.	4.4	.65
I make students aware of value issues within the subject matter.	4.0	.84
I try to show students the relevance of what I teach.	4.5	.58
I explore a variety of points of view.	4.0	.89
I encourage student participation in decisions that affect them.	4.0	.89
I encourage students to get involved in self-evaluation activities.	3.4	1.3
I foster independent learning.	4.0	.92
I encourage critical reflection.	3.7	.87
My campus supports my efforts to try new techniques.	3.7	1.1
My campus supports my professional development endeavours.	3.6	1.2
My participation in the Instructor Development Programme has positively affected my teaching.	4.1	.98

When considering responses that are below 3.4 and tend towards the negative, respondents stated that individual differences among their students are not considered in the objectives of the course (3.3). They do not adjust the pace of the courses if students are not keeping up (3.3), nor do they allow for individual differences in the evaluation procedures (3.3). There also appears to be discrepancies in the amount of student input into course objectives (2.9), student choice in topics for assignments (3.0), and student involvement in self-evaluation activities (3.4).

When asked about the support they receive from their campus, respondents were split in their responses with 48 - 49 % answering either NO, no, or yes and no. They were, however, quite positive in the belief that the IDP is a worthwhile program with 68% answering in the affirmative.

Comments

Of the 53 respondents, 25 choose to provide written comments in the last section of the survey. Ten of these comments were positive, four negative and three mixed. The remaining eight comments offered suggestions on how to improve the IDP process. Of the supporters of the IDP, one respondent was most flattering: "Do not change the IDP at UNB. It is very worthwhile. *Most* people learn a tremendous amount. It just takes *most* of us a while to realize it." A valuable side effect mentioned three times was the camaraderie developed and the chance to interact with instructors from other colleges.

The negative comments were centred around the IDP curriculum. For example, "I'm not interested in theories of the 19th century when we're dealing with adult students of the 1990s." "I approached the programme looking for 'tools' to help in my teaching. I received theories and issues." Some of the comments were based on incongruent perceptions; one respondent wrote "Virtually all courses [outside the IDP] are offered on Saturday."

Scattered among the comments about the IDP, were comments about the NBCC environment. In response to how much campus support is evident, one respondent stated: "My supervisor is supportive: colleagues are not". Another stated: " I strive to practice the principles I have learned. However, I find there are things in place which limits this at times (i.e., out-dated curriculum which are too rigid, traditional evaluation methods, etc.)." Finally, three respondents stated that they received very limited or no support for professional development.

Also, respondents had concrete suggestions on how to improve the IDP. These suggestions are recorded as they appear in the surveys.

1. The university should maintain control and certification but it should hire based on ability to help the students and not patronize itself.
2. A course on effective writing and communication would have been of great use.
3. The best suggestion I could make is to have all instructors attend a refresher course in the IDP to help them better relate to students and understand the need for change in many areas. This refresher course should take place every seven to eight years.
4. There should be time spent on actual test writing.
5. Have people that teach labs at university explain their methods of delivery.

Results of interviews

Interview with students and department heads

Interview comments, not surprisingly, echoed those of the questionnaires. Generally, both instructors and department heads spoke of their overall level of satisfaction with the Instructor Development Program.

> Things really came together for me in summer school as far as my development as an instructor is concerned. (Instructor)

> The end result has been that I am more satisfied with the instructors who have

gone through the program. (Department Head)

Graduates from the early years of the program were not so positive in outlook than more recent graduates. Earlier graduates appeared less satisfied with the curriculum and/or the selection of instructors. One respondent stated that the instructors were "totally out of touch with the community college system." Another stated: "Some were more wrapped up in what they had published this month. I don't think a lot of them could see beyond that." Despite objections to spending their "summer vacation on campus," and doing their best to endure the "oppressive heat," interviewees acknowledged the inherent value of the program for themselves and their students, and agreed there is a continual need for such a program.

The majority of positive comments came from instructors who were more recent graduates of the program. One stated: "That first summer I saw people grow so much in their learning and in their confidence and what they have to give and share with their students that in my mind they deserved triple As."

Department heads' comments were also affirmative in nature. "The sooner that you send a new instructor off to summer school the better. It makes for a much healthier learning environment [at the college] for both the students and faculty." And, "my instructors who have gone through the UNB program have come back speaking very positively about it. The comment I most often hear is, 'now I understand'."

Emergent themes

Five identifiable themes emerged from the interviews: community, reality, practicality, accountability, and technology in the classroom.

Community

The "sense of community and affiliation" that came from interaction with peers was an unexpected and beneficial bonus for participants. As one instructor stated: "I'm sure someone has said, you just can't replace the value of having such a diverse group come together." Also, "people who have never had any kind of university experience before enjoyed that sense of community." Even the Department Heads recognized the importance of the group experience. "I got the sense that community college instructors felt isolated from what was occurring on other campuses and longed for that kind of peer contact they had experienced at summer school."

The experience of participants was extremely varied. The current design of the program, includes a residential component, which was confirmed by interviewees to be an important aspect of the program. The residential component encourages collaboration and nourishes an environment in which participants, both individually, and in groups, can experience for themselves what it means to be a "learner" within a community of learners.

Reality

Upon returning to their various campuses, many participants are eager to begin applying their new knowledge to their present situations. Some become discouraged when they tried to implement adult education principles in their classrooms. Opposition or lack of support came not from students, but from college administrators and other instructors on their campus. As one instructor aptly described: "...[I]t's very difficult to come down off the mountain. You're young, you're energetic and have just come back from summer school. You have all these wonderful ideas and you return to an environment where a number of instructors have been there for quite a long time...not saying that they won't be re-

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ceptive...but you have to be careful of your re-entry into the real world. Maybe that's something that could be added—realistic expectations."

It was suggested in order to avoid, or at least soften this "clash with reality," that even more emphasis be placed on peer learning and networking and that there be increased input by the instructors and department heads into NBCC course content and curricula.

Practicality

Despite the general opinion that the IDP program is a valuable, if not "vital" component of the continued success of New Brunswick's community college system, Instructors and Department Heads strongly advocated a return to "meat and potatoes" or the more practical components of instructor development. "Make sure that everybody gets the basics across the board." One department head asked: "What are the concrete methodologies and resources that you can put in a box and take home with you from the two year program?" Another instructor added: "There is room for some of the things being done. There is room for philosophy...that's good stuff and personally I believe in it. I would like to see more accent put on the mechanics, however."

Accountability

Accountability was an issue of particular concern for Department Heads. Due to the changing nature of community college funding and increasing competition from the private sector, Department Heads were mindful that the IDP program should continue to be aware and to serve the specific needs of the consumers of education. These "consumers" include both the college instructors and their students. They remind us that "we are ultimately accountable to the client. We have to take every measure that we possibly can to be seen to do our job." Also, "[NBCC] students come here as consumers of knowledge. It's part of my job to ensure that they have received the best training possible."

Technology in the Classroom

Instructors and department heads, while optimistic about the future of the IDP and the NBCC system, were keenly aware of the increased interest and demand for incorporating technology into their college classrooms. Comments such as "technology is moving so quickly you must incorporate it" acknowledge that "things are changing fast" and that the college must move quickly to gain an understanding of distance education. "Distance education should definitely be in there [the IDP] ... to introduce [the IDP participants] to the teaching they will need to know over the next few years..."

Recommendations

The ten individuals who were interviewed made the following recommendations for improving the Instructor Development Program:

1. increase input from community college instructors and department heads as to course content (possible instructing);
2. hold introductory workshops for those who have no prior experience writing papers at the university level;
3. emphasize peer networking and peer learning and teaching;
4. maintain clear, detailed objectives;
5. include courses on organizing skills and class planning;
6. generate a travelling "road-show" to conduct intensive workshops on the college campuses;
7. conduct at least one mandatory course on peer counselling;
8. focus on the practical without eliminating theoretical aspects;
9. ensure that all IDP instructors are engaged because of relevant skill not tenure or availability; and
10. keep up the good work.

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Interviews with instructors

Interviews were held with two instructors who have been working in the IDP since its inception, prior to it coming to UNB. Both were asked to comment on the changes they have seen in the program over the years and whether the directions they have seen it taking are appropriate for the IDP participants.

These two instructors reported that the college instructors were a much different group in the early 1980s than they are now. The groups now include many women and more varied areas of content expertise than the early groups who were often made up of male trades instructors. In the early years, more emphasis was put on instructional strategies than on group process, interaction and reflection. Changes in the program through the years were often a result of the instructors' collective feedback about the IDP.

Both instructors who were interviewed emphasized that what is important in the program is for there to be a balance of instructional strategies, group process and self-awareness. Both instructors thought that this balance is being maintained in the program even though courses might have changed.

A specific change that was noted as being positive was the recent change in the practicum which allowed the practicum to become a process of peer evaluation and collaboration rather than strictly a formative evaluation.

One instructor thought that the overall goal of the IDP should for the NBCC instructors to be more self-directed in their learning when they complete the IDP than when they came into the program. The program should be a process of empowerment. Both instructors believe that this is what they strive for in working with the college instructors.

Discussion of results

The results of the questionnaires and interviews indicate a high level of satisfaction with the IDP. The comments in the questionnaires and the interviews both point to this satisfaction growing as the years the program was housed at the University of New Brunswick increased. This could be due to the continual fine tuning that occurs in the IDP from summer to summer as a result of each year's formative evaluations. It could also be due to the increased number of graduates of the program who return to their campuses to proclaim that the program is worthwhile. It is likely a combination of the two factors.

The self-evaluation forms present a picture of confident and assured instructors. They know how to plan instruction and use a variety of instructional techniques. They believe that their students are challenged to learn and that they are available to assist in this learning. However, there appears to be little student input; whether it be in participating in the planning of the course or in actual classroom participation. As much of the college curricula is planned for the instructor, it is understandable that students would have little or no input in this phase. Even with these restrictions, instructors could assure that their classrooms are more student centred rather than teacher centred. Students should, whenever possible, be encouraged to summarize discussions, have a choice of assignments, and the pace of the course should be adjusted, as much as possible, for those students who are falling behind.

The comments in both the questionnaires and the interviews were found to contain several misconceptions about the IDP, the Certificate and Bachelor of Education at UNB. Courses are rarely offered on Saturdays and there are courses offered in all calendar sessions. Also, some of the comments suggest that the respondents do not understand the present composition of the program. Recommendations that the IDP focus on program planning would indicate a lack of knowledge that there are two courses designed around this topic. IDP participants have input into course content in at least two ways. The formative evaluations of each summer allow participants input into the program. Also, at least three of the IDP courses are planned in consultation with the participants.

A final misconception is in the choice of faculty for the IDP. None of the instructors, besides the Program Director, are UNB faculty members. Each instructor is chosen for content expertise and knowledge of the community college system. It is inaccurate to suggest that instructors are chosen with disregard for the needs of the students.

A number of respondents suggested that specific content be added to the IDP. Requests for specific content are accommodated by the instructors if possible. For example, if instructors requested a session on teaching labs, a guest may be sought to come into the class. Other content areas, such as test writing and writing skills, may be touched on in the program, but due to time limitations are beyond the scope of the program and are addressed in other courses. It should be remembered that as IDP participants are often involved in course planning, these requests should not go unheeded.

One respondent suggested that the IDP should include an emphasis on peer learning, teaching, and networking. The methods and strategies used in the IDP model these methods as part of the working philosophy of the program.

Other suggestions, such as the refresher course for instructors, and the travelling road-show of workshops are beyond the scope of the IDP. It would be appropriate for the DAEL to determine what the further instructional development needs of the college instructors might be and address them in an appropriate manner.

Finally, both the comments and the interviews confirm the need for the IDP to remain a dynamic program. As a result of past formative evaluations, and being cognizant of the need to remain current, the IDP has continued to evolve since coming to UNB. The courses today are more focused and responsive. In the summer of 1993, the practicum was changed to allow for a more peer oriented process. Feedback from the participants suggest that this was a positive change. Also, two courses which tended to be of a more theoretical nature were melded into one, and two new courses were created under the interactive strategies umbrella: Learning Materials and Communication Practices. It is hoped that these courses will address the need to be practical and future-oriented.

Conclusions

This formative evaluation of the IDP allowed instructors, learners and administrative personnel an opportunity to express their opinions about the IDP and suggest areas for improvement. One group of major players were not included in this study: the learners of those who complete the IDP. It would be an extensive but interesting research project to determine if the graduates of the IDP are perceived by the learners they work with to be more effective instructors. However, the validity of a study of this nature would be severely affected by the influence of other variables.

The most important issue that has arisen in this study is that many of the respondents lack a clear understanding of what the IDP is about and what constitutes "the program." Perhaps a travelling road show would be an appropriate solution — a travelling display with videos, slides, and computer graphics could show people what the IDP accomplishes.

This could be used on its own as an explanation and example of a professional development program or in combination with videos introducing the IDP instructors in an introductory session for future participants. Even though this project is beyond the mandate of the IDP, it should be considered as a future project which UNB could develop collaboratively with the DAEL.

In conclusion, it appears, from this study, that the IDP is a positive influence on the majority of those who participate in it. Evaluations of a formative nature should continue to be a part of the process in order to ensure that the IDP remain a responsive and dynamic program.

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Ellen Herbeson, Ph.D. is the Assistant Professor and **Patricia A. Post**, B.A. is the Graduate Assistant at the Department of Adult and Vocational Education, Faculty of Education, University of New Brunswick, Fredericton, New Brunswick, Canada.

By Sarah Gravett

Conceptual Change Regarding Instruction: The Professional Enhancement of Faculty

The research reported in this paper focuses on the professional enhancement of faculty from a constructivist learning as conceptual change perspective. The main point of departure regarding instructional development is that conceptual change with regard to the way in which the instructional process is conceptualized by faculty is the key to improving instruction. The paper focuses on an interactive seminar designed for this purpose.

RESEARCH INDICATES that many students leave higher education institutions equipped with passive knowledge, rather than with active knowledge that is congruent with the aims of higher education. Students with passive knowledge can manipulate formulas and reproduce facts and theories but they are incapable of demonstrating true understanding or applying the underlying principles that govern these facts and theories (see Hounsell, 1990). Active knowledge, on the other hand, is characterized by true understanding of key concepts and principles that underlie facts and procedures, as well as true understanding of the way in which these principles and concepts are interconnected. Active knowledge can also be accessed or utilized in potentially relevant situations (for example, when dealing with real-life problems), and thus enables intellectual independence. One of the reasons for this predicament is that instruction often encourages the acquisition of passive knowledge, because faculty approach instruction as the transmission of knowledge to passive students. However, current research on learning (learning as conceptual change, student approaches to learning) suggests that instruction should be a process of guiding and supporting the knowledge construction of students. This implies that faculty should approach instruction as the creation of a context conducive to the learning process. The challenge that I (as an instructional consultant) was faced with, was how to guide faculty, from a diplomatic instructional development viewpoint (Hewton, 1982), to adopt this approach to instruction. I consequently designed an interactive seminar for this purpose and offered it to three groups of faculty. The presentation of the seminar was utilized to simultaneously evaluate the seminar formatively.

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The Design and Implementation of the Interactive Seminar

Points of departure

I endorse a diplomatic approach toward instructional development. This implies that the instructional consultant's task is viewed as analogue to that of a diplomat's, as both the instructional consultant and diplomat ".. act as a bridge between a set of policies, goals or ideas on one side and, on the other side, a 'host culture' which it is hoped to influence in some way" (Hewton, 1982, p. 1). Seen from a diplomatic perspective, the instructional consultant's task is that of negotiator and agent of change.

The fundamental principle underlying the design of the seminar is that conceptual change with regard to the way in which the instructional process is conceptualized by its practitioners is the key to improving instruction (Ramsden, 1992; Prawat, 1992). The main aims of the seminar are, therefore, in the first place the stimulation of a disposition favourable to the creation of a context conducive to student learning, and secondly, to afford faculty with an opportunity to reflect on their current instructional practice, and to make a conscious decision to approach instruction reflectively.

Phases of the seminar

Getting people to change conceptions, is a difficult undertaking. Research on the process of conceptual change suggests that several conditions must be met: firstly, learners must be dissatisfied with their existing conceptions to some extent; secondly, they must find the alternatives both intelligible and useful in extending their understanding to new situations; thirdly, they must figure out some way to connect new beliefs with their earlier conceptions (see Prawat, 1992). Therefore, when aiming at fostering conceptual change, three phases are suggested, namely an awareness and disequilibrium phase, a transformation phase and a consolidation phase.

The first phase of the seminar (see figure 1) afforded faculty an opportunity to explore and clarify their existing conceptions of instruction and learning and to identify gaps, flaws, or discrepancies in these conceptions. The idea of exploring existing conceptions regarding instruction and learning, links with the view of Handal and Lauvas (1987) that instructional development should focus on instructors' practical theory of instruction, with the aim of fostering its conscious articulation and elaborating it. Handal and Lauvas describe an instructor's practical theory as "... a person's private, integrated but ever-changing system of knowledge, experience and values which is relevant to teaching practice at any particular time". Focusing on methods, without paying sufficient attention to the underlying practical theory upon which practice is based, may lead to some apparent short-term effectiveness, but not to a long-term modification of practice.

In order to foster the conscious articulation of the participants' practical theory and to stimulate a disequilibrium regarding current educational practice, the first phase of the seminar proceeded in the following way: After faculty had been requested to think and write about their view on their instructional task, they discussed these views. The aim of this written and discussion exercise was to stimulate self-reflection on instructional practice (see Von Wright, 1992). The next step was a discussion of the aims of their teaching, firstly by examining the aims of higher education in general and then secondly the aims of teaching in their specific disciplines. In order to stimulate critical reflection on

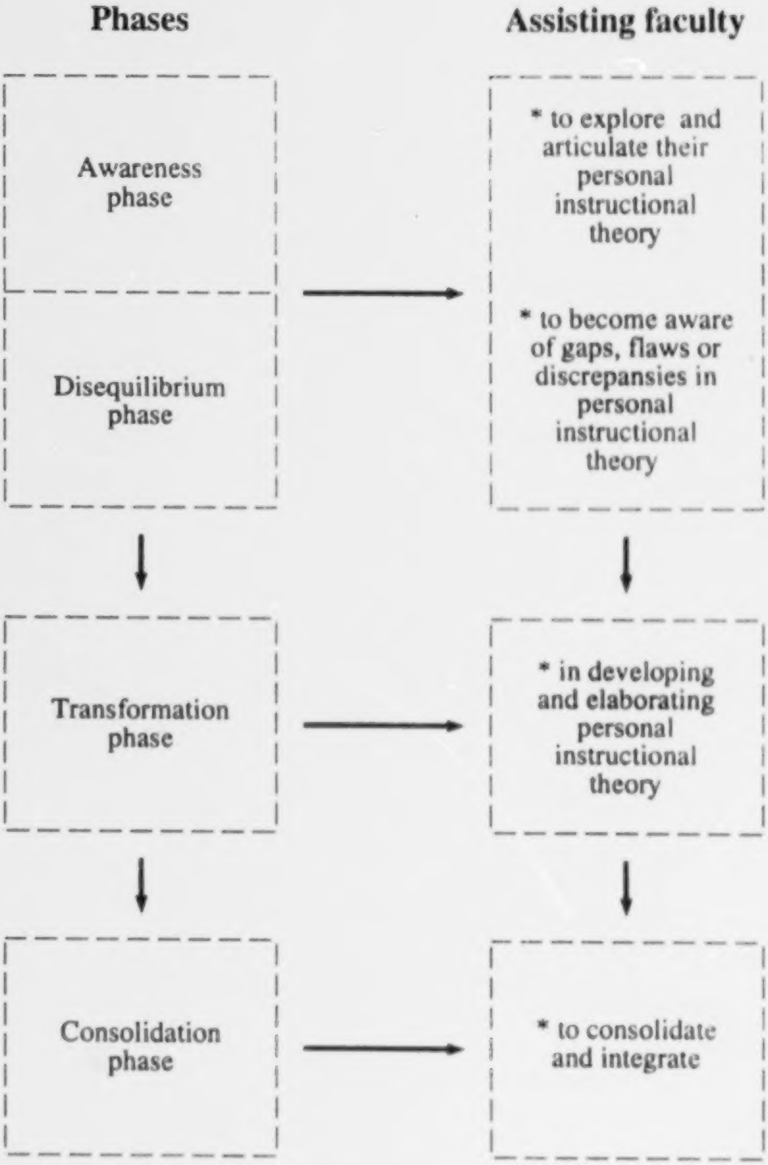
Phases
Assisting faculty
Awareness phase
Disequilibrium phase
* to explore and articulate their personal instructional theory
* to become aware of gaps, flaws or discrepansies in personal instructional theory
Transformation phase
* in developing and elaborating personal instructional theory
Consolidation phase
* to consolidate and integrate

Figure 1: Interactive seminar: Phases

their teaching, I asked the participants to once again read what they had written previously about their instructional task, and to try to establish in what way their educational practice actually promotes the teaching aims they had identified. This lead to the introduction and discussion of the idea that instructors' espoused theories of instruction and their theories in use (see Agyris & Schon in Bowden, 1988) frequently do not correspond. The espoused instructional theory of faculty usually requires creativity, problem-solving, independent thought and analytical thinking from the students. However, the message that is implicitly but strongly received by students, is based on the instructional and assessment procedures used by faculty (their theories in use), and these encourage memorization and reproduction of facts, formulas and theories (see Crooks, 1988). I emphasized that learners react to instructional practice and not instructional intent and, subsequently, suggested that instruction ought to be approached consciously as guiding and supporting student learning. I emphasised that this notion requires a thorough understanding of learning. The first phase of the seminar ended with the participants writing about their conceptions of learning, followed by a free and uninterrupted discussion by participants on what learning entails.

In the phase of the seminar that aimed at transforming (enriching or revising) instructors' practical theories of instruction, I explored the view on learning as conceptual change and student approaches to learning with the participants (see for example Ramsden, 1992; Marton, 1990; Biggs, 1993; Prossner, 1993; Pintrich, Marx & Boyle, 1993; Prawat, 1992; Prawat & Floden, 1994).

The idea of learning as conceptual change is underpinned by a constructivist philosophy. From this perspective it is argued that learning is an active process by which learners construct their own knowledge in the light of their existing knowledge and through interaction with the world around them. Learners' existing knowledge serves as an interpretative framework for knowledge construction. Consequently, a learner's existing conceptions play a very important role in comprehending new information.

Understanding goes hand in hand with the construction of an integrated conceptual framework (connected knowledge). In fact, according to Prawat (1992), seeing relationships or connections between units of knowledge is the *sine qua non* of conceptual understanding. The better a person's knowledge is organized or structured (connected), the more effectively it can be accessed when needed. This contention is supported by research which contrasts the knowledge base of experts and novices. Experts know more than do novices, but their real advantage lies in their ability to access what they know - presumably because their knowledge is organized in a more connected fashion. Experts in a discipline develop more concepts and more interconnections between the concepts than novices. As a result, experts have richly connected and finely integrated conceptual frameworks.

When real learning (the construction of meaning) occurs, the learner actively connects new information or ideas with his or her existing knowledge. Therefore, learners must recognize that the new information is related to what they already know, or that it is incompatible with their existing knowledge, and that their own ideas are flawed or incomplete. If learners can connect new information to their existing conceptual framework and they can construct new, meaningful interconnections so that their existing conceptions are transformed (enriched or revised), then conceptual change occurs.

Thus, existing conceptions are transformed during meaningful knowledge construction (construction of understanding).

Conceptual change involves a qualitative change in the manner a person understands, conceptualizes and experiences subject matter and, consequently, in a person's understanding of a phenomenon, an idea or an aspect of the surrounding world. The goal of learning (and teaching) from a conceptual change perspective is that students should be enculturated into the various disciplinary communities and thus increasingly acquire the thought characteristics typical of an expert in the discipline.

I emphasised the research findings that learners' approaches to learning are determined to a large extent by their perceptions of instructors' expectations and assessment requirements (Entwistle, 1991). Thus, instructors can promote either a deep or surface approach to learning through their teaching and assessment procedures, and, with conceptual view in mind a deep approach is essential. I also emphasised that learning is not purely a rational endeavour. West, Farmer and Wolff (1991) refer to the rational aspect of learning as "cold cognition" and the affective aspect as "warm cognition". Affect always plays an important role during learning. Thus, the rational and affective aspects of learning are not to be separated. A person's values, beliefs and interests will, for example, influence his or her intentions and goals, which will, in turn, influence a person's general approach to learning, motivation, dedication and perseverance (compare Pintrich, Marx & Boyle, 1993).

Similar to the approach during the awareness and disequilibrium phase, the approach with faculty during this phase was inquiring and dialogic aiming at negotiating shared meaning (see Prawat, 1992).

I then discussed the broad implications of the examined conception of learning for instruction with faculty by firstly introducing the notion of teaching as negotiation (Prawat, 1992), and secondly, the role of teachers as experienced guides who lead and support students (as novices) in traversing new cognitive territory, while simultaneously assisting them to move toward the view of reality shared by those in the disciplinary community. This was followed by group discussions focusing on the creation of a context conducive to student learning, after which each group reported to the whole group, followed by further discussion.

In the last phase of the seminar the participants were prompted to consolidate, integrate and synthesize their views on instruction and learning.

The Evaluation of the Seminar

As mentioned previously, the seminar was presented to three groups of faculty, namely a department in the Faculty of Arts (eight lecturers), a department in the Faculty of Education (ten lecturers) and 53 lecturers at a nursing college.

The presentation of the seminar was utilized to simultaneously evaluate the seminar formatively (see Patton, 1987). Qualitative methods were implemented for this purpose. By utilizing qualitative methods, formative evaluation can provide depth and detail about a programme's strengths and weaknesses (Patton 1987). I tried to find answers to the following questions: What is working? What is not working well? What are the perceptions of the participants? The seminar was evaluated by me as participant observer and by the participants using an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The data-gathering through observation entailed that I made extensive field notes during the seminar and taped the seminar proceedings. A second observer was present for triangulation purposes (see Denzin, 1988). After the consolidation and qualitative analysis of the observational data (see Miles & Huberman, 1994), the patterns that emerged were checked by the second observer to ensure a lack of bias.

At the end of the seminar the participants were asked to respond to the following three questions in writing: How did you experience the seminar? Name important insights that you have gained in this seminar (maximum four). Name aspects on which you are not clear, or questions that remain (maximum four). Three days after the completion of the seminar, I conducted a semi-structured interview with participants regarding their experience of the seminar. The interview was conducted with all the participants in the two smaller groups and with ten participants from the nursing college. They were selected by using systematic sampling (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993). One open-ended question was asked to introduce the interview, namely "Please tell me how you have experienced the seminar". All follow-up questions that I asked, were elaboration probes and detail-oriented (see Patton, 1987). The interviews were taped and lasted between 10 and 25 minutes. They were transcribed, analyzed qualitatively, and the analysis was examined by a co-rater. The results of the interviews were then linked to that of the open-ended questionnaire.

Discussion

Three main patterns emerged from the analysis of the observational data:

The majority of participants had never intentionally reflected on their educational practice and many of them lacked instructional self-knowledge as it seemed that their instructional theories in use differed profoundly from their espoused theories. Though many of them claimed to value problem-solving, critical thinking and understanding on the part of students, the views some of them expressed, suggested a quantitative conception of learning as adding facts and procedures to one's repertoire.

From my reflectional field notes it was clear that I found it difficult not to slide into the comfortable role of authoritative information-giver about what constitutes good instruction. I had to exercise control consciously to try and ensure that my theory in use in the seminar indeed reflected my espoused theory of conceptual change learning. I struggled not to fall in the trap of trying to "cover" all information that I deemed relevant for faculty to know. It was confirmed to me that a constructivist approach to instruction is truly much more complex and demanding than the traditional transmission approach.

In the phase that aimed at developing and elaborating participants' practical theories of instruction, they were able to identify the characteristics of a context conducive to learning, although some had reservations about the feasibility of implementing such an approach, due to time constraints and having to teach large class groups. Evidently, more time than had been allocated, was needed to discuss these problems. This is understandable, as change in conceptions may take a long time to mature (Ramsden, 1988).

The main pattern that emerged from the open-ended questionnaire and interview data is that all the participants regarded the seminar as valuable, even though some participants expressed reservations about the instructional approach discussed in the seminar. The main concerns expressed by them were that a constructivist approach will be too time consuming owing too full syllabi that had to be "covered". Some participants mentioned that students do not favour instructional approaches that deviate from what they are used to. The most important reasons provided for their positive response were firstly, that the seminar provided an opportunity for new conceptualization, clarification and consolidation regarding learning and instruction, and secondly, that the seminar induced reflection on their current instructional practices and whether their instructional theories in use in the classroom indeed reflect their espoused theories. It is doubtful whether this positive response by participants will lead to instructional adjustment in all cases. Duit (1991, p. 79) mentions that teachers usually hold the traditional passive view on learning and that research has revealed "... that it is as difficult to change this view as it is to change students' alternative conceptions". Prawat (1992) argues that a constructivist approach to learning and teaching is more complex and interactive than traditional approaches and places greater demands on teachers and students. He adds that instructors are unlikely to complicate their lives in this way without undergoing a significant change in their thinking.

Conclusion

It is concluded that the interactive seminar described in this paper is suitable for the stimulation of reflection on existing instructional practice, and the degree to which espoused instructional theory and theory in use correspond, as well as for the stimulation of a disposition favourable to the creation of a context conducive to student learning. However, the development of expertise in this regard requires reinforcement. Consequently, a programme aimed at guiding and supporting faculty is essential. The evaluation of the seminar through the open-ended questions provided a clear indication of the issues faculty view as important and the questions which remain. These could form the basis for follow-up seminars.

I nevertheless regard the seminar described in this paper as an indispensable part of an envisaged programme, as expertise implies a sustained self-reflective (Barnett, 1992) approach to the creation of a context conducive to learning. A consistent self-reflective approach to guiding and supporting student learning demands a conscious decision by faculty and an intentional attempt to ensure that their instructional theories in use reflect their espoused theories (in this case, constructivist theory). Such a conscious decision requires the opportunity to reflect on existing instructional practice for faculty to become susceptible to conceptual change regarding instruction and to consciously commit themselves to a self-evaluative approach. The seminar described in this paper provides such an opportunity.

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Dr. Sarah Gravett is in the Bureau for University Education at Rand Afrikaans University; PO Box 524; Auckland Park, Johannesburg, 2006, South Africa.

Book Group Discussions

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

In the beginning of winter quarter, 1995, the Center for Teaching Excellence at Ohio University, Athens, Ohio sponsored book groups for faculty interested in discussions about teaching. The book selected by the Center for Teaching Excellence was *Teaching to Transgress* (1994) by bell hooks. Enrolling in the book groups was voluntary; normally five to ten faculty members and a facilitator from the Center for Teaching Excellence participated in each book group meeting. Each discussion group met according to the group needs. For example, my discussion group had five faculty members. We met seven times; approximately two hours during each discussion meeting.

Prior to the book group meetings, certain chapters were read (decided upon by book group members) and noted ideas about strategies to guide student learning and reflective thoughts were recorded. During the book group meetings concrete examples of teaching-learning methods, along with focused discussions of the chapters were accomplished.

With the book group members, the collaborative experiences brought exciting pedagogical views to the discussion table. Sharing teaching experiences and related professional activities contributed to enhancing open, intellectual exchanges among book group members. The passion of the book group participants toward teaching was evident. I hope that pedagogy groups will continue as professors forge ahead with ideas about how to most effectively guide learning into the 21st century.

The following is a review of *Teaching to Transgress* (1994).

***Teaching to Transgress*. by b. hooks. New York, NY: Routledge Publishing Company. 216 pages, ISBN 0-415-90808-6**

Reviewed by Dr. Beth J. VanDerveer

bell hooks is the author's pseudonym; Dr. Gloria Watkins is a distinguished professor of English at City College of the City University of New York. Recognized in the circles of higher education for her feminist thinking and cultural criticism, bell hooks' ideology is stamped on dozens of books. She has been anointed a "black public intellectual."

bell hooks is prolific and she loves to write. Her impact has been immense. No other black woman author appears on as many bibliographies as bell hooks. Her work and ideas have been critiqued in *Esquire*, *The New Yorker*, *The Village Voice*, and *Elle*.

Some believe bell hooks is a rebel and a "hustler." She has shaken the foundations of educational institutions and feminist thinking. Being tough, crass, and sometimes unforgiving, it is difficult to reconcile the use of offensive writing with her assertions that she is genuinely spiritual and deeply Southern.

This background helps explain how bell hooks addresses some head-on pedagogical issues in higher education. Add to it a taste for blunt, colorful, and pro-

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vocative language, and you have a compelling blend of essays and opinions.

Teaching to Transgress (1994) is a collection of essays by bell hooks that provides philosophical viewpoints and critical reflections about teaching. The author's pedagogical principles are rich and her writing energy demands the rethinking of educational practices. Wrestling with several big issues, such as the engaged classroom, multiculturalism, and teaching-learning dynamics that shape our academic institutions, the author unveils many educational concerns.

The unifying thesis of hooks' book is its subtitle: "Education as the Practice of Freedom." There is something genuinely democratic underlying this premise. Questions: Do you know how to create an engaged classroom? Are you knowledgeable of ways to approach the multicultural classroom and curriculum? Do you know how to teach effectively to a diverse student body?

Essays I - III discuss engaged pedagogy, values, and multiculturalism from political, social, educational, and psychological views. The author asserts that engaged pedagogy, values, and multiculturalism are essential toward the fulfillment of education as the practice of freedom.

hooks chooses to take on some of the most controversial issues in education today. Weaving the strands of the pedagogical issues into a focused tapestry is a monumental task.

Engaged pedagogy reaches beyond empowering students; the classroom that guides a holistic model of learning will be an environment where professors grow, and are empowered by the process, according to hooks. Teachers who embrace the challenge of self-actualization will be more capable of creating educational practices that engage students. Perhaps most important, training centers that provide the professors creative ways to approach the multicultural classroom and curriculum are needed.

Constantly challenging the reader to combine practical knowledge of classroom interactions with connections beyond boundaries that enables transgressions ... a movement against and beyond boundaries ... is hooks' mission. The author writes, "It is that movement which makes education the practice of freedom." In a different voice, a call for renewal and rejuvenation in our teaching practices are heard.

Throughout this discourse, the author is not always able to make the pedagogical issues flow in a coherent way.

The essays sometimes weaken during the theoretical and practical presentations, perhaps because the author tries to do too much.

Essay IV: "Paulo Freire" begins in a striking manner; Gloria Watkins conversing with bell hooks, her pen name. In this particular essay, the author clearly addresses the significance of Paulo Freire upon her development as a critical thinker. The brilliant dialogue provides an example of how Paulo Freire effects the teaching-learning practices of bell hooks.

Teaching to Transgress then launches into feminist thinking and feminist scholarship. Appreciative to the many women and men who dare to create theory from the location of pain and struggle, hooks suggests that their work challenges us to renew our commitment to an active, inclusive feminist struggle. For hooks, personal testimony and personal experience is fertile ground for the production of liberatory feminist theory. The author encourages the reader to bridge the gap between feminist theory and feminist practice.

Recalling how the past of racism is part of its present and of its future, social relations between black women and white women are presented. hooks provides the reader with vivid insights into their complex relationships and their feelings about one another. Creating new models for interaction that take us beyond the servant-served paradigm is advocated.

The next essay "Building a Teaching Community" shrewdly reconnects the reader to the engaged classroom process. This essay is in my estimate, among the most helpful. The author reminds us of the importance of basic human considerations that improve learning experiences for all. Some progressive pedagogical methods are refashioned to enrich our teaching practices, scholarly work, and habits, both within and outside the institution. In some ways it is a radical and heartfelt piece of writing.

The final essays of the book revisit some classroom considerations that are alluded to in the previous written discourse. Items, such as voice, socio-economic status, feedback, grades, and role models are huddled together. The reader is encouraged to understand the functions of teachers in challenging students to move beyond boundaries — to transgress. The author reiterates the responsibilities we have as teachers.

The last essay in the book is entitled "Ecstasy". The author writes, "The academy is not paradise. But learning is a place where paradise can be created." This essay offers a surge of excitement and hope.

While there are tasty morsels scattered throughout about teaching-learning responsibilities, the author does not delve into some critical pedagogical issues. The book is short on practical approaches, though the author does call strongly for unique learning strategies in order to address each classroom experience. Although throughout her work bell hooks lacks citations and does not offer statistics to bolster her points, that's the way she writes.

Teaching to Transgress provides worthwhile reading for those of us in higher education who are interested in head-on pedagogical issues. Today many educators are compelled to confront the biases that have shaped learning practices in our society and many educators are willing to facilitate innovative strategies for the sharing of new knowledge. hooks provides a timely resource.

Disheartening to me is the radical view of author toward institutions. Seeking to restore life to a corrupt and dying academy, the author writes "... it is painfully clear that biases that uphold and maintain white supremacy, imperialism, sexism, and racism have distored education so that it is no longer about the practice of freedom." hooks proclaims, "To education for freedom, then, we have to challenge and change the way everyone thinks about pedagogical process." This style of writing disturbs me, however that is a part of her cerebral energy.

Teaching to Transgress may be of particular interest to teaching resource centers for the purpose of faculty discussions. Book group discussions that include instructional strategies from the issues raised by bell hooks are productive. The reviewer highly recommends this book as a source for encouraging educators to become involved in pedagogical efforts. The issues for study are relevant and grounded in the field.

It is inaccurate to say that this book is revolutionary. Rather, it stimulates dialogue and fresh thinking. The essays promote the values of questioning, discussion, and self-evaluation. For many, *Teaching to Transgress* (1994) is a wake-up call. bell hooks has challenged the educational platform.

Dr. Beth J. VanDerveer is an Assistant Professor at Ohio Unviersity, School of Recreation and Sport Sciences, Athens, OH.

Postmodern School Leadership: Meeting the Crisis in Educational Administration.

Postmodern School Leadership: Meeting the Crisis in Educational Administration. **Edited by Spencer J. Maxcy. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers, 1994, x + 186 pp. $55.00**

Reviewed by Cameron Fincher

The editor and his colleagues have written an informative but disturbing book on the implication of postmodernism for educational administration. The book is informative because it discusses postmodernism more openly than other books or articles dealing with the subject. It is disturbing because the contributors may be naive enthusiasts pursuing dubious objectives with the wrong chart and compass.

In his introduction Maxcy gives an overview of postmodernism but he leaves discussion of its applications to his coauthors. In a three-page history of modernity and structuralism, he is correct in his statement that postmodernism cannot be understood without appreciation of its antecedents. Readers will agree that postmodernism, as applied to educational administration, requires "a grasp of the contemporary educational scene." Neither condition will be obvious to critical readers of the book. If there is "some consensus" on the meaning of modernity, there is even less consensus on the meaning and relevance of postmodernism as a social, political, or education movement.

Modernism is identified in general terms as the forces that have dominated thought and discussion in western civilization since the 16th century. These forces include our "penchant for rational and scientific methods" and the Cartesian dualism of "mind and body, thought and action, and observer and phenomena." Thus, the "ideas, principles, and patterns of interpretation...on which western and central European and American society and culture, increasingly found itself based" are lumped together and four centuries of western civilization are dismissed as irrelevant.

One of the contributors (Scheurich) offers another introduction on social relativism as a postmodernistic epistemology "for" educational administration. He defines epistemology as "the study of how we know, or what the rules of knowing are," and then appends an endnote of two lengthy paragraphs in which he explains what he means. Indeed, Scheurich's approach is strictly philosophic and his chapter contains 32 endnotes requiring 8 pages of the book. Social or postmodern relativism is, in his words, "the unabashed recognition that all epistemology, ontology, and the ways of thinking that yield such categories as epistemology and ontology are socially conditioned and historical relative or contextual." His chapter thus becomes a "social relativist critique of scientific realism" and/or "a postmodernist politics of epistemology."

Two other contributors (Blount and Curry) provide obligatory chapters on postmodern feminist perspectives and higher education as a field of educational administration. Blount is dubious about a "leadership crisis" in education and wonders why her voice (and that of others) is not heard. She writes that a "ruthless reflexivity helps me to maintain some integrity while attempting emancipatory work in this oppressive system." She confesses that she "might take a few chips out of what seems like a vast and formidable social structure." Curry discusses the constructions that govern the academic organization and calls for a reconceptualization of higher education as learning organizations. She relies upon the work of organizational theorists who advocate radical change in societal institutions. Colleges and universities, according to Curry, must become adaptive or innovative learning communities by "unfreezing" themselves from current beliefs and "absorbing" new or alternative attitudes and behavior.

In multi-authored chapters McKinney and Garrison discuss postmodernism and educational leadership; Davies and Foster provide a postmodernist analysis of educational administration; Fazzaro, Walter, and McKerrow consider the implications for moral practice in a postmodern society; *and* Miron and Elliott consider moral leadership in a poststructural era. The four chapters are similar in plan of attach, i.e. the rejection of modernistic or structuralistic thinking, as defined by the respective authors. They differ in chosen targets and point of view.

Scientific management and structuralistic assumptions pertaining to natural science, system-based functionalism, and research are rejected by Miron and Elliott. Technocratic accountability, standardization, hierarchy, centralization, and a modernistic emphasis on "progress through reason" are opposed by McKinney and Garrison who see public schools as another version of Jeremy Bentham's model prison. Structuralism, they ways in which "the individual is decentered," and its failure to promote change are opposed by Fazzaro, Walter, and McKerrow. The essentialistic foundation of educational administration, its claims to a coherent structure, and its pervasive modernistic view are anathema to Davies and Foster. Thus, in each case the plan of attach is to extend the assumptions of modernism or structuralism to the logical extremes and thereby contend that underlying assumptions, as defined by the authors, are unwarranted, if not illegitimate and oppressive.

In several chapters there is a tendency to recast assumptions as axioms, premises, or postulates that are self-evident. Swartz, for example, gives five "axioms" of qualitative criticism that would be regarded as truisms by most empirical (quantitative) researchers. The invocation of such axioms supposedly would deny claims of objectivity and lead to "unforced agreement" as the preferred outcome of inquiry. Many scholars and researchers would contend, however, that a literal acceptance of such axioms would preclude all methods of scholarly inquiry, empirical research, *and* qualitative criticism.

Collectively the authors of this volume ask that readers view the premises of modernism through the lens of postmodernistic rejection and disavow any allegiance they might have to traditional or conventional modes of thought and discussion. Neither modernism nor postmodernism is defined sufficiently to make such a commitment. Indeed two authors, having "no desire to particularly specific," invite readers to "playfully imagine" their own alternatives. And yet, all authors imply by the tone of their argument that postmodernism "holds great promise" for educational leadership.

In his "afterword" the editor acknowledges the "dangers" of nihilism, sloganeering, revising foundationalism, returning to romanticism, and becoming neostructuralism, babble, linguistic scientism, or apolitical dalliance. He mentions such possibilities (ostensibly) to keep open the "difficulty critical administrative discourse" that focuses on the "diseased assumptions and practices of modernist and poststructuralist educational leadership, as well as illustrates the modes of postmodern and poststructural critique of educational discourse/practice." In that one lengthy phrase the editor summarizes what is wrong with this particular volume. The

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nation's educational leadership need not worry about the diseased assumptions and practices of modernism and poststructuralism, and they certainly have no vested interest in "the modes of postmodern and poststructural critiques."

In brief, our public schools are embroiled in many social, political, economic, legal, and administrative problems that seemingly defy solutions. There are no convincing reasons, however, to believe that linguistic, literary, or cultural perspectives can improve our understanding, interpretation, or explanation of educational issues *and* lead to more responsive, adaptive, and effective practices in educational administration. The improvement of classroom teaching, student learning, and school leadership is, by no means, an ensured outcome of any methods, operations, or procedures that are explicit in postmodernistic perspectives or interpretations. The authors are to be commended for the educational issues and problems they identify, but many other critics have identified the same issues and problems without blaming modernistic and structuralistic thinking.

Linguists, literary critics, and postmodernists—like logicians, theorists, and researchers—can be captured by their conceptual "tools of the trade" and enslaved by their methods, procedures, and processes. To a certain extent, all of the above can become neo-platonists, preferring to describe, analyze, interpret, and understand objects, events, and processes in their ideal form instead of the particular, actual, or specific forms in which they are encompassed by human purposes and experience. In other words, postmodernists are as capable of self-deception and misguided efforts as modernists and structuralists.

In other words, the future of postmodernism in an open marketplace of ideas is quite dim. Postmodernism is much too peripheral to the social, economic, political, and cultural issues with which contemporary educational leaders must contend. At its worst postmodernistic thinking can appeal only to closed minds and it can be debated only within closed circles of adherents and devotees. At its best is too far removed from the needs and interests of public school principals and teachers who, in the rush of their daily routines, know nothing of "restructuring, critiquing, or redesigning" the nation's schools.

Cameron Fincher is Regents Professor of Higher Education and Psychology, and Director of the Institute of Higher Education at the University of Georgia in Athens, GA.

By Linc. Fisch

Regrets?

Looking back over the years doesn't reveal many things I wish I had done differently—but among them are a few that I still have time to do something about.

My hometown newspaper today recounts the career of a local minister who is retiring after 48 years of service, over half of it in this community. The headline over the story proclaims, "25 years and no regrets."

I thought back over a similar period in my own life—disregarding the philosophical advice of Leroy Robert Paige about not looking back ("...something might be gaining on you," Satchel warned). I wondered whether I could give such an unequivocal response as the good parson's simple "None" if a reporter ever should ask (unlikely as that might be) whether I had any regrets in my life. (It would be easy to respond about the many joys in my life, if that kind of question were asked.)

It's true that my working years have included many twists and turns that were unplanned and unforeseen. I've functioned in some areas for which I had little training and preparation. Yet each experience provided a stepping stone to the next new experience. Unlike many in academe, I was not programmed on a track and schedule to reach particular goals at particular times. Rather, I responded to opportunities to do interesting things that might use my personal resources to the benefit of others. Guided by that kind of goalward imagery, it somehow all seemed to work out as well or better than if I had planned it.

But *regrets?* I didn't find any of major consequence. A couple of times my timing could have been a little better when I changed positions or locations. And once I chose not to buy a cabin in a wilderness area only 70 miles from home—a decision that I regretted only every other week for a year or two. By and large, though, there was nothing that I would call major.

I did, however, identify a few minor regrets—things I wish I had done if I had thought of them when the time was opportune. Perhaps my reporting a few of them here may alert you to some things that you might like to undertake yourself.

I wish I had kept a file of all my class rosters over the years, along with a few notes to help me remember individual students. It would be useful in specific instances when I'm trying to recall a name or place of a student that I haven't seen in years. It would also be a record of the lives I may have touched (for better or worse) in my teaching. Add to that file the names of students who worked with me as TAs or RAs, as well as my faculty and staff colleagues in several venues. Later years might also contribute rosters of organizations and boards of which I've been a member and lists of participants in numerous workshops I've conducted since I retired from regular teaching.

Next, on a somewhat frivolous level, I wish I had kept the name tags from every conference, workshop, and event I've attended. It would be an interesting documentation of many, many hours

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spent (and some misspent) in a wide variety of groups and meetings. I only started saving tags about seven or eight years ago when rewriting my name large enough to read evolved into an artistic endeavor. That collection is now mounted on my study door, almost covering it—a strange kind of retrospective exhibit.

More seriously, I wish I had kept a journal continuously from my early days of teaching. We all know the value of using writing to crystallize and collect one's thoughts—at least we tell students how important it is. A journal provides a means for looking back, reflecting, and building upon thoughts that otherwise might have been buried or lost. One journal keeper I know is on his 30-somethingth volume, and I marvel at the useful things he draws regularly out of those writings. Of course, it's not too late for me to start keeping a journal now, but having started the pattern 40 years ago would have firmly fixed it into my behavior.

I wish I had started earlier to share my ideas with others through writing. My doing this came mostly after I was freed from a demanding regimen of classes-preparation-exams term after term, which I felt took number one priority in my professional life. It would have been a natural outgrowth of keeping a journal.

I wish I had learned early on how to manage paper better. To this day, I can't distinguish what is worth saving and what should be discarded—and I haven't learned to store what I save so that I can retrieve it easily. I'll admit that my frequent hunts to find a buried treasure sometimes turn up other treasures. But the joy of finding the unexpected is greatly overshadowed by the frustration of having time and emotion absorbed by unsuccessful or long-drawn-out hunts. I'm now trying to force myself to handle incoming paper only once (insofar as possible) and to keep in a spiral notebook notes of all telephone conversations so that there's only one place to look for particular information, rather than among dozens of scraps of paper scattered all over my desk.

I wish I had stood ground and fought a couple of good academic fights that I walked away from. It's hard to take a stand when the power is stacked on the other side, even if you think you have justice and integrity in your corner. It's always a tough judgment call: Should I choose to live to fight another day on perhaps more favorable ground, or should I risk going down to defeat, no matter how glorious, on the side of principle?

I wish I had kept in closer touch with friends of earlier years. And I wish I had expressed to them how valuable their friendship has been to me. We get so caught up in current life that we easily overlook what helped bring us to where we are.

Most of all, I wish I had taken time to thank those who had an influence on me in my early years and who were responsible for helping me turn out the way I did—not just parents and friends, but teachers of all kinds: A language teacher who honed my appreciation for words, a literature teacher who fed my appetite for books, a mathematics teacher who introduced me to one of my first loves, a biology teacher from whom I learned the joys of wildflowers, a YMCA director who provided a positive growth environment for me in my spare time, a scoutmaster who understood that offering responsibility breeds responsibility, a music director who first offered me the joys of re-creating great choral music and who taught me the discipline necessary to do so, a drama teacher who cared as much for her students and their well-being as she did for her subject, a minister who listened to kids, a principal who challenged me to be more than I was.

All of them by their teaching and their example taught me how to live a good life. Only now am I beginning to express, when I can, my gratitude to those who helped shape me in a way that I never could have done by myself. I now realize that I also am a small part in a chain of continuity, carrying on our culture and our civilization to those who come after us—and to make lives better in whatever way we can. And it helps me recognize that despite its downtimes, my life's work has been of value—an important recognition for all of us if we want to maintain our health and sanity in this sometimes crazy world.

Someone whose name I do not know said it better than I: "We should so live and labor in our time that what comes to us as seed may go to the next generation as blossom, and what comes to us as blossom may go to them as fruit." Those are good words to teach by.

Linc. Fisch lives and writes and even occasionally regrets at his home in Lexington, Kentucky.

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The *JOURNAL of* STAFF, PROGRAM, & ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

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Developing Faculty Developers: Some Issues When Recruiting New Faculty Developers and Ensuring the Professional Growth of Current Faculty Developers 229

By Chris Kapp, Madelyn Healy, Carla Nellisen, Bogomir Mihevc, Chris de Winter Hebron, & Helen Watt

Faculty development will continue to be a major issue in dealing with change in higher education. This report deals with the identification and preparation of new faculty developers; the professional growth and development of existing faculty developers and the essential issues at different stages of development. The report is the product of an interest group meeting at the Twelfth International Seminar on Staff and Educational Development (ISSED) held in Glasgow in June 1991.

The Role of Staff Development in Improving the Quality of Learning and Adapting to Changing Conditions 241

Produced by the Staff Development-interest group at ISSED '93, Berlin Edited by Prof. Chris Kapp, University of Stellenbosch, Republic of South Africa

Changing conditions in higher education have led to serious concern about the quality of learning. Staff development efforts have a major role to play in addressing these concerns in providing appropriate guidance, training and support and thus empowering staff to cope with these changing conditions.

A Partnership Model for Improving Teaching and Learning—Step One: Building the Database 247

By Helen Carlson, Linda Hilsen, Maureen O'Brien, & Deborah Petersen-Perlman

This article describes a process of soliciting both student and faculty input to assess the teaching and learning environment. The methods used to gather the information included surveys and focus groups. There is general agreement among faculty and students as to what is actually happening in the classroom. Additionally, both students and faculty agree that what is happening in the classroom is not necessarily what is desired for effective teaching and learning. Finally, there is some disagreement among students and faculty as to desired activities.

Celebrating Diversity in Community: Creativity as a College Institute Day Experience 263

By Edward S. Beckstrom

The risk of taking a creative approach to a community college "institute day" is explored. With a focus on creativity the college's effort to develop and conduct an event that involved the active participation of the college community and was enjoyable is discussed. The impact of the day's experience, both short- and long- range is shared.

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Is Teaching and Learning a Priority? Conduct an Audit and Find Out 277
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For decades community colleges have claimed the sobriquet of "the teaching and learning college" as the clearest expression of their culture and values. But do community colleges really place a priority on teaching and learning? Suggesting that a college's true values are embedded in the written policies and statements, practices, and related behaviors of the institution's stakeholders, the author poses a number of key questions as guidelines for an audit of a college's commitment to teaching and learning.

On Being a Pathfinder on the Information Superhighway: Or How to Lead Your Students a Little Way into the Electronic Frontier 285
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E-mail and electronic posting can enhance instruction in the class and be effective aids to class administration. As businesses make more use of these tools, it is important that students leave school prepared and comfortable using them. Using examples from our experiences, we discuss some ways in which using e-mail and electronic posting can enhance the class and ease the burden of class administration. We also list some practical issues and problems to be dealt with in the course of managing a class that uses e-mail and electronic posting.

Faculty Evaluation: Number One Quality Control in TQM 291
By Dr. Hans A. Andrews, Dr. John Erwin, & Mr. James Barr
The myth that tenured faculty cannot be fired is widespread in American society. Classroom evaluation is a key element in proving the myth wrong as institutions move into TQM and CQI management techniques. Teachers support meaningful evaluation with appropriate outcomes. One College's experience in making such improvements is highlighted.

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By Chris Kapp, Madelyn Healy, Carla Nellisen, Bogomir Mihevc,
Chris de Winter Hebron, & Helen Watt

Developing Faculty Developers: Some Issues When Recruiting New Faculty Developers and Ensuring the Professional Growth of Current Faculty Developers

Faculty development will continue to be a major issue in dealing with change in higher education. This report deals with the identification and preparation of new faculty developers; the professional growth and development of existing faculty developers and the essential issues at different stages of development. The report is the product of an interest group meeting at the Twelfth International Seminar on Staff and Educational Development (ISSED) held in Glasgow in June 1991.

AS PERFORMANCE appraisal and total quality management become buzzwords in higher education and are increasingly linked to phrases such as "maintaining standards" and "excellence", the professional development of faculty become of major importance to academic leaders in higher education.

As a consequence, faculty development programs and/or units are being established at an increasing rate in universities and institutions of higher education to assist faculty and staff to address this issue. The need for faculty development has been brought about by a number of factors including the following:

- Student populations are becoming more **diverse**. This diversity is a direct consequence of open access to higher education and has resulted in a wider variety of learning needs in the students. Students do not only come from more diverse backgrounds, but they are often the first generation of students, in their families to pursue higher education. Another group of students are older and more mature than the "typical" college student.
- As higher education is continuously becoming more expensive, greater demands for **accountability** are made. Increased productivity is not only demanded by the consumer or client, but also by government agencies who subsidise higher education.
- The largest portion of the budget of a university (up to 70% and more) is allocated to its **human resources**. If human resources are an institution's most valuable asset, then surely it is good economics to invest money in continuously developing these human resources. (Though human resources may include non-teaching staff, this paper will concentrate on the teaching staff or faculty.)
- Performance appraisal has become part of the general university scene. If performance appraisal is not used to **improve** per-

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formance, then it is of very little value to the institution or any of its constituents. Faculty development is a logical consequence of performance appraisal. It is indeed becoming increasingly difficult to draw new blood into the university system; thus universities have to spend more time and resources developing the faculty they currently employ.

- As quality and excellence on the one hand and widening access on the other hand are emphasized, more pressure will be put on **maintaining standards**. Faculty development has an important role to play in helping institutions, departments and individual faculty members maintain standards.
- The whole world and the scientific/academic community in particular is experiencing an **information explosion**. Academics may need assistance in coping with this information explosion especially when it comes to choosing what content to include in the curriculum.
- The personal computer has come to stay. This has had an enormous impact on the learning industry and has led to the application of **new technologies** in instruction. Computer assisted instruction, interactive video, the interactive compact disc are only a few of the new technologies that are having an effect on teaching and learning. Knowledgeable people are necessary to make this transition successfully and faculty development can play a major role in this regard.
- Higher education has lost much of its glamour. To be a professor is no longer an envied position. In some disciplines it has become very difficult to attract good faculty members and even more difficult to keep those currently employed. This has led to increased reliance on **young and inexperienced** faculty members or in many cases even **part-time** faculty. This again has led to an increased demand for faculty development.
- In an environment where competitiveness has been on the increase in the past twenty years, it has become a matter of survival of the fittest. Teaching at a university is a **professional career** and this teaching ought to be carried out by professionals in a professional way. To facilitate this, institutions need to invest in substantial faculty development efforts.
- More and more **professions** have become involved in higher education. Most professions (medicine, law, engineering, education, etc.) demand some input into the curriculum and certainly want to have proof that training/education for their professions is done by professionals in a professional way.

Against this background the need for faculty development has been on the increase. As this is still a relatively new field of study and practice, there are few professionally-trained faculty developers around. Most current faculty developers are "self-made" people who had to learn the field through experience. The person designated as the faculty developer for an institution is often chosen by administrators who may have limited knowledge of faculty development roles and programs.

As more faculty developers are employed, there is a pressing need for continuing education to support their efforts and to provide a forum for them to review their own progress, to share strategies and to become members of a support network.

In this report these needs of faculty developers are addressed. The issue will be addressed in two parts:

- the identification and preparation of new faculty developers, and
- developing current faculty developers.

The identification and preparation of new faculty developers

When considering the appointment of a new faculty developer, a number of issues have to be addressed. In this section the following questions will be discussed:

- Are there certain kinds of personalities that are indicative of successful faculty developers?
- what experience and knowledge should a person have to become a faculty developer?
- what would be the most appropriate training and what form of continuing education should a new faculty developer receive?
- what are the essential skills of a faculty developer?

- what are the selection criteria for a new faculty developer and how might the process be managed?

Personal Attributes and Successful Faculty Development

Although skills, training and experience do play a major role in determining the success of a faculty developer, these are attributes which can be developed over time. A more decisive factor, which time cannot develop, is the right person with the right personality. This may be an important determining factor in the success of a faculty developer.

Enthusiasm

The new faculty developer has to be an **enthusiastic** person who generates such enthusiasm that it eventually rubs off on participants in faculty development programs. To be able to generate enthusiasm the faculty developers have to believe in themselves and in what they are doing. It may sometimes be very difficult to keep up your enthusiasm, but is essential to be a radiant example to other faculty members.

Respect for individuality

In a higher education institution a person responsible for faculty development has to work with well qualified faculty members from a variety of disciplines. To some extent the faculty developer becomes a "neutral" person, not attached to a specific discipline, but practicing as a professional. **Respect** for the individuality of each faculty member and every academic discipline is a keyword for success. The faculty developer also has to command respect from other faculty members, and this can best be achieved by observing the following guidelines:

- ensure that everything that you do is done in such a way that it does not invite criticism.
- be as flexible as possible and allow for other alternatives.
- be careful before you speak—choose your words carefully.
- don't make promises that you cannot keep.

Modesty and openness

Modesty and **openness** may seem to be contrasting characteristics. Because a faculty developer has to operate across the curriculum and campus-wide, any success by a developer should not be accepted personally but should be attributed to the faculty member. The role of the faculty developer is that of a broker or a facilitator and the satisfaction of success has to belong to the faculty members.

Keep an open mind

An **open mind**, without too many preconceived ideas, can help a faculty developer to go a long way. In many instances you, as the faculty developer, have to listen to people who believe they are doing the right thing, and you may be quite sure that you know a more effective method. In this situation it is better to refrain from judging their idea prematurely and keep an open mind.

Empathy

As faculty developers work with a variety of people from a wide spectrum of disciplines, they must have the ability to **empathize** with each individual. This is particularly true in a workshop where individual participants may find it difficult to internalize what is being done. Under these circumstances a faculty developer has to "put him/herself in the other person's shoes" to try to understand the individual's perception of the situation. Empathy is also very important in personal consultation where the one-to-one interaction calls for a considerable amount of "thinking and feeling how the other person thinks or feels".

Stability and Organization

To be successful in faculty development the developer needs to have **a stable** and **organized personality**. The faculty developer often has to function under severe stress, and there are occasions when he or she has to wear many caps and adapt to a variety of people with different personalities and styles. There is little room for anger, fear,

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conflict, depression, feelings of inferiority or any such emotions. These should be well-controlled and managed.

Dynamism

Any endeavours by a faculty developer should be characterized by dynamic action. When presenting a lecture or a workshop, he or she has to be a positive role model to other faculty and the faculty developer's performance should radiate energy.

Flexibility

Flexibility is a personality trait often linked to openness, but it entails more than that. It implies that one has a repertoire of alternatives available to fall back on whenever a particular course of action does not seem to work. This applies in a workshop setting as well as in personal consultation.

Enjoys working with people

Although there are many other personality traits that one will look for when identifying and preparing a new faculty developer, one which ultimately has to be considered is the total make-up or temperament of the person who will be doing the job. Faculty developers have to **like working with people** and with many **different** people. They have to be "tickled" by interaction with other people. This is a very taxing temperament which drains a great deal of psychic energy.

Necessary Experience

The amount or type of **experience** a new faculty developer should have, is very difficult to quantify. The following elements, however, are essential:

1. experience in teaching and leadership in higher education,
2. exposure to different student populations,
3. experience in organizing and presenting courses and workshops,
4. research experience.

Teaching experience

Although it may seem obvious that a new faculty developer will be selected from a range of persons with teaching experience in higher education, this may not always be the case. At least three to five years of successful **experience of teaching at a university** should be a necessary prerequisite for employment as a faculty developer.

Experience with different populations

The university teaching experience should also be linked to **exposure to a variety of different student populations**. Teaching experience with undergraduate and graduate students, and with various year groups (first year students through graduate students) will give a faculty developer a better understanding of the complexities of teaching in higher education as well as broader perspective on the issue of student learning. This experience will also provide knowledge of course design and evaluation of student progress. Knowledge of student motivation, different student learning styles and problems that students experience are also necessary. In addition, the role of educational technology in teaching and learning should be part of the faculty developer's knowledge. The experience of receiving formal and informal student feedback is also valuable.

Workshop design and presentation

The only way to gain experience in designing, organizing and presenting courses and workshops is by actually doing it. There are many opportunities for teachers in higher education to become involved in this activity. Having been exposed to designing, organizing and presenting courses and workshops, it should be clear to the faculty developer if his program was successful. On the other hand, observers will be able to assess an individual's competence at doing this. There is, however, no replacement for on-the-job experience. The first question that has to be answered here is whether the individual has the personality make-up to deal with this.

Leadership skills

Leadership is another one of those skills that can only be acquired in the real life situation. In faculty development one constantly has to lead people to achieve common, agreed upon goals within a particular situation. Often, leadership has to be asserted not only among peers, but with superiors. This complicates the role of the faculty developer, especially for the new and inexperienced person.

Conducting research

New faculty developers also need to have experience conducting research. To be counted in the higher education fraternity faculty developers have to prove that they can carry out independent research. Much of the credibility of the faculty developer will depend on his or her ability to do research. There are many areas in the field of teaching and learning which have to be researched.

Qualifications and training

Appropriate **training and mechanisms for continuing education** of the faculty developer is another complex issue to be addressed when identifying and preparing new faculty developers.

Academic qualification of at least the Ph.D. or equivalent level are essential to be taken seriously in an academic environment. This qualification should preferably be in the psychological or educational sciences, but this does not exclude similar qualifications in other disciplines.

The new faculty developer needs to be given or should have had some **exposure to the international body of knowledge** on faculty development. He or she should have attended national and international forums in this field of study and should thus be aware of the leaders in the discipline and be familiar with the literature.

Basic skills needed

There are numerous **basic skills** that one would expect of a faculty developer. These include teaching skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills, problem solving skills and skill in doing developmental research.

A new faculty developer should have above average **teaching skills**. In the day to day practice of faculty development, most work is related to the teaching role of faculty members. The faculty developer has to be a role model and has to "practice what he or she preaches". Not only basic teaching skills, but experience and skill in applying a variety of teaching methods, would secure credibility for the faculty developer with clients.

Communication skills are closely related to and even integrated with teaching skills. This not only refers to communication with large groups such as in a typical lecture situation, but also communication with and in small groups (including a proper understanding of group dynamics) and communication with individuals, especially in one to one consultation. Although "practice makes perfect", basic communication skills are essential to develop competence in this field.

Directly related to communication skills and once again integrated with personality style and temperament, are **good interpersonal skills**. All of the work of the staff developer, involves interpersonal relations. Academics are individuals and highly trained in a variety of fields, and the new faculty developer has to be competent in coping with each of these situations. The institutions often involve extremely complex interpersonal relations such as conflicts in an academic department or strained relations between two colleagues.

Faculty development in higher education is a relatively new field of study and has few clear cut answers to questions. In most cases, each issue that a faculty developer confronts is a new issue, and each should to be treated individually. There are not many set recipes that can be applied to problems that arise. It is therefore very important that the faculty developer be competent in **problem solving**. Problems will often have to be solved on the spur of the moment.

Closely related to problem solving skills is the skill to do **developmental** or **action research**. Many of the typical situations that a faculty developer has to face, draw on his or her ability to do developmental research. Few of the problems related to teaching and learning have quick and easy solutions. Most of the issues will need a developmental research approach.

Criteria for selecting a new Faculty Developer

When **selecting** a new faculty developer, each of the above areas need to be taken into consideration.

The process through which new faculty developers can be identified and recruited could be summarized in the following steps:

1. all potential candidates can be identified by application in response to a detailed job description in an advertisement.
2. if specific potential candidates are considered or if the position is very specialized, it may be advisable to appoint a search committee to look for suitable candidates or to invite specific people to apply for the position.
3. an initial screening of applications should take place to eliminate some applicants and to set up a short list of possible candidates who best fit the profile of the post.
4. interviews may be advisable with the three best prospects.
5. it may be a wise step to involve present faculty developers from other institutions in this whole process.
6. an even better way of ensuring that you decide on the best candidate is to observe the candidates as they present a workshop or conduct one-on-one consultation with a faculty member.

Developing and ensuring the professional growth of current faculty developers

Many of the pioneers in the field of faculty development have been active for ten to twenty years. The practice of faculty development is demanding, and it is essential for faculty developers to ensure their effectiveness by keeping abreast of the latest developments in their profession and to look for ways in which they can ensure continuous professional development.

The issue of the continuous professional development of the current faculty developer presupposes that those aspects described in the previous section of this report are met when identifying and selecting a faculty developer. However, in this section the following aspects will be addressed:

- The different stages of development.
- Priorities and time allocation of current faculty developers.
- Monitoring methods for the needs or problems of clients.
- The status and position of the faculty developer.
- Motivation of the faculty developer and the promotion and marketing of faculty development activities.
- The role of a mission, policy statements, goals and guiding principles for faculty development.
- Networking.
- The skills and "in-service-training" of faculty developers.
- The importance of research on faculty development and teaching and learning.
- The importance of feedback to and evaluation of faculty developers and the faculty development program.

Each of these aspects will be dealt with in the following paragraphs:

Stages of Development for Faculty Developers

Faculty development units and faculty developers may find themselves at different stages of development which may call for a more individual approach to continuing education.

The first stage of development, which could be called the "forming and storming" stage, is more or less during the first five years of existence. The early stages of development are linked to the institutional situation. Sometimes it may be a one-man-show or a committee doing the work. During this stage there are at least three developmental tasks which should be accomplished, namely establishing credibility with your clients or customers, getting the concept of faculty development accepted in the institution and establishing academic respectability. The first five years is a difficult period - breaking down resistance, establishing yourself in the field of faculty development and doing academic work which is of high quality - all these issues are unenviable tasks, but they have to be tackled before getting to the next stage.

The **second stage of development**, from 6 to 15 years, may be called the "development and growth" stage. This is characterised by numerous typical developmental tasks such as **redefining your program**. It may need restructuring or refocussing as the institutional needs change and the focus of faculty development changes.

After having gone through the first five difficult years, one has a natural tendency to want to settle down and operate in a much more relaxed mode. There is some danger in this, and it is essential to **maintain vitality** during this stage. It all depends on the profile that was established during the first stage whether the type of ongoing program matches that of the initial first stage.

It becomes very important to do some **planning for the future** - including some elements of strategic planning. An institution-wide and co-ordinated strategy which gives a central focus and clear direction to faculty development activities should be developed.

A basic development during this stage is to guarantee sufficient **staffing** and **continued financial support** for faculty development. An infrastructure for staffing should be established as well as an accepted funding formula. At this stage it should be quite clear that faculty development is not just a passing fad, but has become an accepted institutional policy and part of the university scene.

Depending on the particular strategies that are used for faculty development, it may be advisable to develop an **institutional mechanism to fund release time**. This will create opportunities for faculty members in academic departments to work on specific faculty development projects. The funding will be used to buy in replacements during the period in which the project is running.

Once a faculty development unit has been functioning for a couple of years, it becomes important to create **mechanisms for moulding the team together** and to uphold a positive team spirit, a supportive working environment and a climate condusive to innovation and creativity. Regular team building sessions should be arranged to ensure common goals, clear communication channels, mutual understanding, sound interpersonal relations and leadership.

It is also important to build a faculty development team who are mutually supportive and can complement one another's skills and personalities.

To ensure a secure future, the faculty developer or the faculty development unit should be able to provide top management with **proof of positive results**. This need not only be quantitative but should also be qualitative. Proof of participation by faculty members from the institution should be collected to demonstrate successful programs. In addition evidence needs to be gathered that the quality of teaching has improved and, most important, the quantity and quality of student learning has benefitted from the faculty development efforts. This calls for "performance indicators" which have to be collected from an early stage. The importance of action research in collecting evidence to indicate teaching improvement, cannot be underestimated.

One would expect that faculty developers who find themselves at this stage of development, **identify with faculty development as a profession**. They consider themselves professional faculty developers and they will probably become involved in mutual activities with colleagues at other institutions.

After 15+ years, the faculty developers enters the **third stage of development**, the stage of maturity and autonomy. This stage is typically characterised by a broadening of the concept of faculty development and embracing related fields of practice such as total professional development, curriculum development, personal development and organizational development.

Networking with other faculty developers who are at the same stage of development and co-operation with colleagues becomes more pronounced in this stage. This stage may also lead to more specialization within a specific area of faculty development. As faculty developers gain maturity in the discipline they **become independent** and more autonomous. This independence and specialization frequently results in requests for consultation from other institutions.

The number of persons involved in faculty development is limited and usually the number of faculty developers within one institution is even more limited. It is therefore essential that developers who have reached this stage consider **mentoring a replace-**

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ment. This is something which should be kept in mind when building the team - ensure that the team has a capable successor.

Time allocation and setting priorities

In institutions of higher education, the faculty development unit can be abused by top management because tasks may be allocated to the faculty development unit if there is uncertainty as to where they belong. Although this can be a real danger, it is more probable that the faculty developer will have too many legitimate tasks to deal with and insufficient time to do everything. **Thus, faculty developers need to develop skills in time allocation and the setting of priorities.** One way to determine proper time allocation is to have a job description and to do a time analysis of everything done over a period of time, preferably longer than one week. When analizing the results of these two, one can clearly see whether sufficient time is allocated for the most important tasks. If this is not so, then a serious rethinking of **priorities** should be done. Most of the available time and prime time should be allocated to those issues that can be described as the **professional task** of the faculty developer, that is, the one that only he or she can do well. These have to be measured against the **basic goals** of the institution and of the faculty development unit. The **focus** of activities and priorities may change over time.

Monitoring needs of Faculty

As part of the continuous development of a faculty developer, **methods to monitor the needs of faculty or the problems** that they experience have to be developed. This can be done in a variety of ways such as **formal research methods**, both quantative and qualitative, **and surveys** or **questionnaires** which attempt to determine faculty development needs. **Informal feedback** which can be obtained from discussions with individual faculty members, heads of department or senior managers can help to give an indication of needs and problems. **Evaluation of previous workshops** can be a valuable source of information regarding issues that are still unresolved. Usually an evaluation of a workshop consists of a formal quantative assessment as well as open comments. In the open comments from participants one can easily determine areas which still need to be addressed. **Written or oral requests** from individual faculty members, heads of department or deans can be a valuable source of information to faculty developers on problems or needs of faculty members.

By **listening** to people and by paying attention to issues that are discussed by faculty members at meetings, during conferences, and at informal get-togethers, one can quickly become aware of issues that need to be addressed.

A structured form of student feedback can be a valuable form of information that can be analysed to identify problems experienced by **students** in the instructional process. An item analysis of the questions used in the student feedback questionnaire can be used to determine the issues that need to be addressed.

An analysis of **critical incidents** can be another valuable source of information to the faculty developer. By analysing complaints which are received by the dean's office one can soon determine a pattern of recurring issues that call for formal faculty development activities.

Status of the Faculty Developer

One of the most important questions that an experienced faculty developer has to come to grips with during the "early maturity" years of his/her career, concerns the **status or position of the faculty developer** in the institution. For faculty development to be taken seriously, the following "conditions" should be met:

1. the senior faculty development officer at the institution (the head of the faculty development unit) should have academic **status**. If developers have to work amongst academics, they have to be accepted as academics to achieve maximum success.
2. the senior faculty development officer or the head of the unit should be involved in upper academic planning and should be a member of the academic planning committee.

3. faculty development should have direct access to the corridors of power and/or acceptance in the corridors of power. This could be done through a pro-vice chancellor or academic vice-president but could still best be done if the head of faculty development is accepted as part of the senior management team of the institution.
4. it is helpful if the head of faculty development is accepted in higher education structures on a regional, national and even an international level. Visibility and a positive high profile needs to be maintained. The faculty developer is always involved in promotional work for the profession and for his or her faculty development unit.

The work of the faculty development unit has to be **marketed** and **promoted** to its constituents in a proper and professional way. Different **target groups** need to be identified such as faculty members, key persons inside the institution, persons on a national or international level who are in the corridors of power and who have influence, as well as faculty developers at other institutions.

There are a variety of ways and means through which marketing and promotion could be done. Some means may be appropriate for more than one target group. Marketing strategies and target groups may best be linked as is indicated in the following chart.

WHO? MEANS	Senior management	Vice-president/Dean	Departmental Chairs	Faculty	Students
personal contact	x	x	x	x	x
annual report		x			
publicity, leaflets, posters	x	x	x	x	x
newsletters	x	x	x	x	x
evaluations	x	x			
publication	x	x	x		
forums/meetings		x	x		x

To ensure the continuous growth and development of faculty development activities at an institutional level, it is advisable to have a clear **mission** for and **policy statement** on faculty development as well as agreed upon **goals** and a set of accepted guiding **principles**.

A **mission** for faculty development should be jointly determined by key faculty developers and key persons within the institution.

Guiding **principles** for instructional, faculty, social, institutional, curriculum and personal development should be formulated and be used as an operational framework.

Networking

An important part of the continuous development of the experienced faculty developer is to actively engage in **networking**. The main function of networking would be to set up a personal support system which would be essential for survival, to learn more about the profession (skills) and to use the network to realise the faculty development program by using the skills of other faculty developers within the network. It is important to recognise that successful networking requires "thinking time" by all concerned, and the funding provision for faculty development units should be at a level which allows for this.

Networking can best be achieved by the following methods:

1. attending conferences and workshops where professionals meet;
2. personal contact which is best established at a conference or workshop or during a study tour or personal visits;
3. informal get-togethers of study groups or working groups;
4. electronic mail, fax or phone calls;
5. membership in professional organizations;
6. reading scientific journals and writing to authors of relevant articles.

Necessary skills/characteristics

What skills and/or characteristics should faculty developers cultivate? Obviously the basic skills and characteristics that have been identified above in the paragraph on basic skills needed for new faculty developers, are also applicable to "experienced" faculty developers and have to be developed continuously.

Communication and **interpersonal skills** can never be perfect and the level of these skills is always more demanding as the level of the people involved are improving.

An experienced faculty developer should, however, attempt to work at developing the following additional skills and characteristics:

1. project and organisational management;
2. research skills, especially action research;
3. the ability to develop trust and credibility;
4. the ability to be flexible and open to innovations;
5. creativity in developing programs and activities;
6. a sense of humour;
7. self-evaluation skills;
8. survival skills which could be distinguished among accepting the developer's own limitations but also to limit his or her involvement to such an extent that he or she can remain effective; personal survival skills to combat stress and burnout and survival skills for the entire faculty development program.

Keeping current in the field

An area in which current faculty developers will have to perform extremely well to ensure continuous growth and development is **research** on **teaching and learning** and on **faculty development**.

It is already an enormous task to **keep up-to-date with the latest developments** in the field. This is one area of research which must be done.

There are various **areas** of the discipline which ought to be researched such as an evaluation of the use of information technology in teaching and learning; evaluating teaching methodology comparing innovative teaching methods and "culture" and related aspects such as learning styles.

A variety of possible **research approaches** could be used such as comparative studies, inter-university exchanges, inter-departmental research (especially collaborative ventures) and inter-institutional research.

Faculty developers should continuously be **collecting data** and should provide themselves sufficient **time** to write up research as well as to develop strategies to disseminate research results to the larger university community.

Assessment of faculty development programs

A final aspect of the continuous development of faculty developers which should not be overlooked is the question of feedback on the impact that faculty development activities have on the productivity of the institution. It is essential that **faculty developers and faculty development activities** or programs should be **assessed** at least once every five years.

There are a variety of ways in which this can be done, and there are numerous aspects that can be assessed.

Self-appraisal

Professionals are capable of **self-appraisal**. Therefore each faculty developer should be in a position to carry out self-appraisal after each activity.

Performance appraisal

Most higher education institutions have a system of **performance appraisal** in place. This will ensure that faculty developers can get structured feedback from a formal system on their key performance areas.

Peer assessment

The activities of a faculty development unit and the faculty developers involved can best be **assessed by peers**. Professionals believe that their work can best be evaluated by other professionals.

Workshop evaluation

After each workshop or activity most faculty developers, maybe in conjunction with colleagues or with co-seminar leaders, would sit down and do a proper post-mortem. **Self-**

evaluation after a workshop is a valuable exercise. Improvements to the program and to the presentation should be considered as soon as possible after the work is done.

Most faculty developers use a system of **participant feedback** at the end of each course or workshop. This structured evaluation provides valuable information to the faculty developer on the content, the presentation and the impact of the learning experience. Carefully analysed participant feedback should lead to program improvement, and it should be reported to all participants and to the top management of the institution.

A very good indication of the success of faculty development activities is the amount of **follow-up work** that faculty developers have to do with participants. This is usually limited to about 10% of the participants in a particular learning experience, but this 10% is a very important part of the change process - these people are the innovators, and they should be given strong support by faculty developers.

Directly linked to the follow-up work after workshops or courses and an integral part of the participant feedback should be an assessment of the **amount of learning** that has taken place. Although this is difficult to determine, one way of doing it is by assessing the amount of **application** of new ideas, innovations, redesigning of curricula or other developments which do materialise.

With a formal system of student feedback, one can compare student feedback on the same courses for the same faculty member over a period of time.

The **range of services** offered by a faculty development unit, relative to its staff and budget, is an important criterion. The **quality** of these services is just as important to be assessed. A continuous assessment of services is the most effective way to evaluate this aspect of the faculty development program.

Closely related to this is the way in which these **services are utilized by clients or customers. Annual reports** should reflect statistics on the use of faculty development services and these ought to be interpreted to decision makers.

An important "performance indicator" for faculty development activities would be the **percentage of academic members involved** in the programs of the unit. Obviously this is influenced by the range of activities offered by the unit which depends on the number of faculty available.

The **institutional culture, climate and setting** play an important part in the success of the faculty development unit and its activities and this needs to be assessed when evaluating a faculty development program. At some institutions faculty development is still at a very early stage of development while at other institutions it may be accepted as part of the institutional system.

Faculty developers will be assessed by their colleagues and by their peers according to their **involvement in professional activities.** These include not only participation at national or international forums but also contributions to the discipline in terms of research output, papers presented and membership in professional organisations. It should also include consideration of leadership positions held in national organisations.

For faculty development units and faculty developers to have a major impact on higher education both on a macro and micro level, there will have to be aggressive attempts to identify and prepare new faculty developers for their roles. It is also essential that current faculty developers use as many opportunities as possible to improve their own competence and to facilitate their own professional development, as well as to ensure continuous growth, development and improvement of their professional tasks.

Prof. Chris Kapp is from the Rep. of South Africa, **Prof. Madelyn Healy** is from The United States of America, **Dr. Carla Nellisen** is from Belgium, **Bogomir Mihevc** is from Slovenia, **Dr. Chris de Winter Hebron** is from the United Kingdom, and **Helen Watt** is from Scotland.

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Produced by the Staff Development-interest group at ISSED[1] '93, Berlin Edited by Prof. Chris Kapp, University of Stellenbosch, Republic of South Africa

The Role of Staff Development[2] in Improving the Quality of Learning and Adapting to Changing Conditions

Changing conditions in higher education have led to serious concern about the quality of learning. Staff development efforts have a major role to play in addressing these concerns in providing appropriate guidance, training and support and thus empowering staff to cope with these changing conditions.

HIGHER EDUCATION worldwide is experiencing an explosion. Not only is there a rapidly increasing demand for higher education with increased access and a democratization of higher education, but there has been a demand for equality of access. Many other changes in higher education have caused concern. Some of these changes such as increased numbers, open access and demand for equality have put quality and standards under pressure. There has been no corresponding increase in infrastructure, facilities and staff to manage these changes. The effect on the quality of student learning cannot be determined but it can be assumed that the effect can be devastating. In this article the role of staff development in improving the quality of learning and adapting to changing conditions will be addressed by referring to the following:

1. The position of staff development in the institution.
2. The increase in student numbers.
3. Multicultural students and staff.
4. Changing roles of staff.

The position of staff development in the institution

For a staff development unit to have any significant impact on teaching and learning in an institution, there are certain **criteria** which have to be met and **conditions** that are essential.

The staff development unit needs to have **direct access to top management**. This means that either the head of staff development should be a member of the top management team or should have a member of top management which is directly reported to. Not only does this give **credibility** to the staff development effort by accepting its importance but it also symbolises to the academic staff that this is given top priority.

The staff development strategy should form part of the institution's **corporate and strategic plan** and should thus be given high priority. Following from proper regognition in it's corporate and strategic plan, there should be a **commitment** through an accepted and shared **institutional teaching**

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policy, which is in the final analysis constituted in an implementation plan.

The unit responsible for staff development should have a clear **vision** of its task and where it should be going. This should be articulated in the **mission** statement which needs to lead to well prepared **aims** and **objectives**.

The staff development unit should be an **independent** and **seperate unit** which is neither attached to a particular faculty or school nor to any administrative unit of the institution. Depending on the purpose of the unit, as articulated in its mission, at least some of the staff should have **academic status**. The unit should be properly **staffed** with persons who have the necessary qualifications, experience and credibility. To enable the unit to fulfill its mission, the institution will have to put its money where its mouth is and provide proper **funding** for the activities of the unit. This includes the **infrastructure** not only as far as staff is concerned but also regarding facilities and equipment.

All this is essential to enable a unit to provide **quality service** to the academic staff. Quality of service cannot be gauranteed if a unit does not have proper staffing, funding, infrastructure, facilities and equipment. Quality should be a hallmark of all work done by the unit. This is essential to ascertain **credibility** with the clientele.

A staff development unit has to maintain good **public relations** with all of its stakeholders and should use the opportunities to become involved in "political" lobbying.

Whenever a staff development unit does become involved in personal consultation or in providing back-up services for processing student feedback, it should maintain **confidentiality**. If a student feedback service is provided, this information should only be used for developmental purposes and not for decision making purposes. If the latter is done, it will destroy the mission of the unit.

The proper **position** of a staff development should be reporting to the Vice President for Academic Affairs and the head of the unit should at least be in line with and on the same post-level as deans.

As far as its **internal structure** is concerned, this depends very much on the mission of the unit and the nature of its activities. The structure which is illustrated in figure 1 is for a staff development unit which not only does staff training but also provides a student feedback service, develops computerbased education programmes as well as an educational technology support service such as videoproduction, photography and graphics.

The increase in student numbers

One of the characteristics of higher education in the 80's and 90's have been the explosion in student numbers which can be attributed to a number of reasons such as the rights of individuals to have access to higher education, open access, a democratization of higher education, the high unemployment rate due to poor economic conditions etc.

To cope with the increase in student numbers institutions have to commit themselves with clear policy statements to a redefinition of the roles of students and staff. Students have to become more active learners and staff have to become knowledge navigators and managers of learning. Contact hours have to be used differently. Institutions have to redefine their roles as they have to change from elitist to egalitarian institutions.

In the changing role of students and staff the latter will have to become managers of learning. Institutions will need more and different facilities and will have to make more use of new technology. This means that computer based education, computer assisted instruction, the use of multimedia, interactive media and hypermedia will have to be encouraged. Staff development has a major role to play in helping staff develop the skills to deal with the new technology and to develop courseware.

Access to new technology will have to be broader and has to be available on a 24 hour bases as well as during weekends and vacations.

Staff development units will have to assist academic staff in developing coping strategies for dealing with large numbers of students. Workshops on active learning, cooperative learning, different forms of classroom assessment and computerised student feedback can help academic staff develop the skills to cope with new situations. Teaching large heterogenious multicultural classes can be an agonising experience for most academic staff and they need support and training in coping mechanisms for these new challenging situations.

Managing a multicultural staff/student situation

As the number of students entering higher education grow and as open access increases, the numbers of students and staff from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds will increase. Although this should not be made an issue, it is important that this should be properly **managed** to avoid possible ignorance or potential conflict developing into major problems.

Through an institutional staff development effort, many of the potential problems can be avoided through pro-active actions. The most important role of a staff development effort should be to create an **awareness** of the multicultural realities on a campus.

Academic staff can be helped by determining the **learning styles** of students and by determining the teaching styles of lecturers. This could lead to different approaches such as:

- changing the teaching style of academic staff to match the learning styles of students;
- gradually helping students to adapt their learning styles to the teaching styles of the institution;
- developing a variety of teaching styles to accommodate the various learning styles of students.

A second phase approach could be to present **workshops** involving students and staff with the following aims:

- to identify the problems that students and staff experience;
- to provide training to students and staff to help them cope with the situation;
- to provide follow-up support to both students and staff to ensure that the problems are properly addressed or solved and that the solutions become internalized and institutionalized.

A third approach from a staff development perspective could be to design a **cognitive development programme** for students which could help all students to become familiar with the demands of higher education.

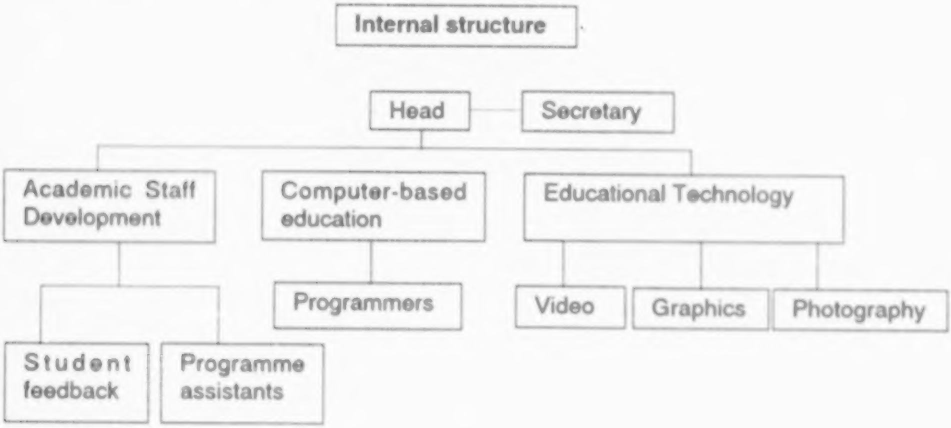

Figure 1

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Students can also be given some basic training in **information management**. Although this skill ought to be a prerequisite for access to higher education, in reality this is not happening and a support programme which creates opportunities to develop these skills will help students to cope.

Another important approach would be to develop the **teaching skills** of academic staff towards approaches which could encourage and develop **student learning skills.** Some of these so-called teaching skills are actually aimed at empowering students to develop co-operative and independent learning skills. These approaches should be accompanied by structured classroom research to determine whether these approaches are having the necessary benefits for the students.

In some situations it may be necessary for "political" reasons to attract students from population groups with no previous experience of higher education (e.g. gypsies, nomadic families) through approaches that could facilitate a culture of learning. This may be done through family education programs or by providing distance education.

The changing roles of staff

As staff developers a major and common focus for all of us are those staff members who are at the early stages of their careers and those staff members who are nearing the end of their careers.

For each of these groups transition is an issue. In all our systems there are mandatory protocols, while there is a common expectation that retirement age is 65 but in practice different countries have different practices as to when they actually leave the campus. In most countries retiring senior staff can provide a positive role model for example acting as a knowledge resource or developing mentoring links.

Academic staff should be supported by staff development units to ease them through that transition. This could be achieved in several ways for example by putting up workshops to identify and address the issues or by setting up a selected network of exceptional staff that could continue to contribute to the institutions.

An induction or orientation programme for new or inexperienced staff could include modules or units focussing on the following aspects:

- confidence building and motivating staff for their role at the institution;
- survival skills such as dealing with large classes, preparing courses, lectures, handouts, tests, meeting and consulting with students, using student feedback and at least becoming familiar with a variety of teaching strategies which promote student learning;
- networking with colleagues from a variety of disciplines which enables them to form support groups whom they could consult on practical matters;
- imparting, sharing or getting to know the values of academics as well as the culture of the institution and owning up and living out these values;
- role modelling on the examples set by facilitators as experienced academic staff who participate in these orientation programmes;
- getting new and inexperienced staff to develop a portfolio and / or get familiar with a personal professional growth contract;
- providing opportunities for individual and group consultation (both formal and informal) on matters related to their role;
- sharing tips or suggestions how to deal with the first week such as possible ice - breakers or warm - up sessions, meeting students for the first time, creating a climate for learning, making a dynamic impact with first presentations;
- providing opportunities for follow-up work with individual staff members;
- integrating new staff members into the academic fraternity.

Orientation programs for new staff along the above lines have been developed over a period of ten years at the University of Stellenbosch in the Republic of South Africa (Kapp, 1992). Other approaches for dealing with transitional phases in the career path of academic staff would include aspects such as using a **cascades** approach to staff development by training a staff member from each significant unit of staff (in terms of numbers) such as large departments or clusters of departments to plan, design and manage a departmental staff development program (Fullerton, 1993).

A significant approach to help staff develop confidence and skills in scientific writing is the developing of collaborative research, editing and writing groups (Goetter, 1993)

Focussing on paradigm shifts from passive to active learning systems is a focus which needs to be addressed by most higher education institutions. This approach has been developed and is being promoted by the Universities Staff Development and Training Unit in the United Kingdom (USDTU, 1992).

Staff development personnel and units have an important and significant role to play in helping institutions of higher education improve the quality of learning and adapting to changing conditions. This role has to be accepted by university management and administrators and they should empower staff development personnel and/or units with the staff, funding, infrastructure and the appropriate policies to do just that.

End Notes

[1] Staff development is the equivalent of **faculty** development in the United States of America

[2] ISSED is the acronym for International Seminar for Staff and Educational Development. This seminar is annually co-organized by **H & E Associates** of Norfolk, England and **ISSED International Conferences**, Lakeside Services in the United States of America in collaboration with a local hosp institution. ISSED meetings are held annually since 1981 and meets in different parts of the world(1990 Cambridge, U.K.; 1991 Glasgow, Scotland; 1992, Prague; 1993, Berlin; 1994, Cape Town; 1995, Moscow).

The **structure** of ISSED seminars is unique. Except for keynote, panel paper sessions and workshops, most of the time during the seminar is devoted to debate and discussion in highly interactive **interest groups**.

When enrolling participants are asked to indicate their interest and preference regarding participation in interest groups. Typical interest groups are Access to Higher Education, Curriculum Design for Higher Education, Providing Support Services for Higher Education, Staff Development for Higher Education, Designing Credit Accumulation and Transfer Systems and Higher Education Partnerships.

Participants are requested and encouraged to share information before the seminar. Names and addresses of members of interest groups are disseminated about four weeks prior to the seminar. Each interest group produces a **report or paper**. This particular report/paper was produced by an interest group of twelve participants and was facilitated by the editor. The participants came from South Africa (3), Scotland (2), England (2), Austria, Egypt, Germany, the Czech Republic and the United States of America.

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Kapp, C. A. (1992, July). *The contribution of an orientation workshop for academic staff to total quality management.* Paper presented at the Fourth Annual Conference on Assessing Quality in Higher Education, Enschede.

Prof. C. A. Kapp, Director of the Bureau for University and Continuing Education of the University of Stellenbosh/R.S.A. since 1984, specialized in staff development for academic staff (e.g. leadership development for heads of department, orientation of new/beginner academic staff, personal professional development of academics and the use and development of teaching methods to enhance student learning,...)

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By Helen Carlson, Linda Hilsen, Maureen O'Brien, &
Deborah Petersen-Perlman

A Partnership Model for Improving Teaching and Learning—Step One: Building the Database

This article describes a process of soliciting both student and faculty input to assess the teaching and learning environment. The methods used to gather the information included surveys and focus groups. There is general agreement among faculty and students as to what is actually happening in the classroom. Additionally, both students and faculty agree that what is happening in the classroom is not necessarily what is desired for effective teaching and learning. Finally, there is some disagreement among students and faculty as to desired activities.

THE CULTURE of a university or college is a complex and mysterious thing. The composition of that culture often includes cliques and rumor mills. Old-timers make grand pronouncements about how things have always been, and fresh young turks often find themselves reinventing the wheel. Being told that they must assess the climate for teaching and learning and seek ways to improve that climate may cause the members of a campus culture (faculty, students, and administrators) to foment cultural upheaval or to flatly resist change. Nevertheless, in the era of Total Quality Management, nationwide assessment programs, and state legislature demands for accountability, members of campus communities around the country are facing the need to answer some rather basic questions about the culture for teaching and learning within their institutions.

Many excellent models exist for improving teaching and learning at the university level—models such as critical discourse analysis, case study development, researching while teaching, alliances for change, integrated systems' approaches (Clegg, 1990; Gratton & Walleri, 1993; Schratz, 1990; Tiberius, Sackin, Janzen, & Preece, 1993). Often, however, models such as these focus only on faculty development and teaching as if students had no responsibility for their own learning (Cross, 1990). Further, the models move ahead with development offerings before thoroughly assessing the teaching and learning environment in the particular institution in which the faculty development program is to take place.

Clearly, faculty and students are involved in the teaching and learning process. In this context, the faculty and their students form a partnership. As partners, both should be involved in assessing teaching and learning effectiveness as well as in developing methods for improving these activities. This paper describes a first step in utilizing a partnership model based on faculty and student input for the purpose of assessing teaching and learning effectiveness.

The Vice Chancellor at a comprehensive, medium-sized, midwestern university with approximately 7616 students and 350 FTE created the Task Force on Teaching and Learning—composed of students and faculty—to examine the teaching and learning

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environment **before** developing a plan for the improvement of teaching and learning. This paper recounts the efforts of a subcommittee of this task force (hereafter referred to as the research team) charged with investigating teaching and learning in the classroom. The primary objective of this cross disciplinary research team was to generate some concrete descriptions of their campus teaching and learning climate as well as suggestions for improvement. The assessment procedures and content originated from a partnership base; the research team sought both faculty and student responses to two major questions:

1. What is happening in campus classrooms from the perspectives of faculty? of students?
2. What could be done to make teaching and learning more effective from the perspectives of students? of faulty?

To answer these questions the research team administered surveys and conducted focus groups of faculty and students.

The Surveys

Subjects: Students

A stratified random sampling of 894 students across class sizes (small to very large) and levels of classes (freshman to senior) responded to a survey. Approximately 40% of the respondents were in classes at the 1000 or freshman level, while 34% were at the 3000 or sophomore level, and 26% were at the 5000 or junior-senior level. Approximately 30% were enrolled in small classes (under 35 students); 38% were in medium-sized classes (36-75 students); 18% were in large classes (76-100 students); and 12% were in very large classes (over 100 students). Approximately 81% of the respondents were 22 years of age or under, and 51% were female. Eighty-eight percent were white, and there were small numbers of African American or Black; Asian American/Asian; Southeast Asian American/Southeast Asian; Puerto Rican; other Hispanic, Latino, or Latin American; Native American, American Indian, or Alaskan Native; and other.

Subjects: Faculty

The research team distributed 132 surveys to 33 department heads, who in turn distributed them to faculty members in their departments. Sixty-one faculty members from across five colleges responded to the survey. Approximately 29% of the faculty respondents had taught ten years or less while nearly 12% had taught thirty years or more. Sixty-two percent were male. Thirty-five percent had the rank of assistant professor, instructor, or lecturer, while over 33% were at the rank of professor.

Measures Used

Besides demographic items, the student and faculty surveys contained questions related to teaching methods, assessment of learning, material resources, human resources, and course evaluation procedures. The surveys also included open-ended questions which asked students and faculty to offer further input about facilitants and obstacles to effective teaching and learning (see Appendix A for copies of the surveys used).

Procedures and Analyses

The research team randomly sampled student respondents from official class listings of the university. Teachers of these randomly selected classes distributed the survey to students. Once completed, the teachers returned the surveys to the research team. Department heads distributed a separate survey to faculty members; once completed, the faculty returned the surveys to the research team.

The research team calculated percentages of respondents who indicated that a particular event (method, assessment, resource, evaluation) was actually used in class. The researchers also determined percentages who indicated that a particular event would help them teach or learn more effectively. In addition, the team tallied and summarized open-ended responses.

TABLE 1.
STUDENT RESPONSES TO SURVEY

Methods *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	%Actually Used
Lecture	72.4%	93.0%
Small group discussion	62.0%	39.6%
Large group discussion	32.4%	29.3%
In-class writing	11.1%	14.8%
Recitation	29.3%	17.1%
Lab experiences	35.0%	24.5%
Media-based learning	29.9%	23.7%
Field experiences	39.1%	9.3%
Assess Learning *Type*	%Deemed Effective	*%Actually* *Used*
Objective paper and pencil	63.6%	83.3%
Essay paper and pencil	45.6%	41.8%
Individual projects	38.4%	22.5%
Group projects	32.1%	22.6%
Group papers	11.9%	11.9%
Weekly assignments	50.9%	40.2%
Reports	14.5%	15.2%
Research papers	22.3%	24.2%
Class presentations	21.4%	18.1%
Class participation	37.7%	22.0%
Computer/multimedia assignments	14.1%	8.5%
Resources *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Chalkboard	74.7%	86.9%
Posters	6.0%	2.6%
Videotapes	66.7%	59.8%
Slides	26.7%	
Maps	15.8%	19.7%
Audiotapes	8.7%	7.5%
Overheads	68.8%	72.9%
Telecommunications	17.9%	4.0%
Interactive television	6.7%	1.2%
Computer labs	31.0%	20.8%
Human Resources *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Graduate TA	29.5%	31.3%
Undergraduate TA	49.5%	20.8%
Graduate discussion leader	25.3%	11.9%
Undergraduate discussion leader	17.2%	8.7%
Guest lecturer	48.5%	30.5%
Team teaching	15.9%	5.0%
Course Evaluation *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Standard form	51.0%	76.3%
TABS	9.4%	8.9%
One-minute paper	15.7%	11.2%
Open-ended questions	34.5%	24.7%
Outside consultant—group	14.7%	6.8%
Outside consultant—individual	15.4%	6.3%
Peer observation	18.7%	13.3%
Self-evaluation	23.3%	16.6%
Videotape	14.1%	16.9%

Student Survey Results

Students indicated that the following methods were used in their classes (from most to least used): lecture, small group discussion, large group discussion, lab experiences, media-based learning, recitation, in-class writing, and field experiences. To learn more effectively, students indicated they desired much more use of small group discussion and field experiences and much less use of lecture (see Table 1).

Students indicated that the following procedures were used to assess their learning (from most to least used): objective paper and pencil tests, essay paper and pencil tests, daily/weekly assignments, research papers, group projects, individual projects, class participation, class presentations, reports, group papers, and computer/multimedia projects. They felt their learning would be better assessed through more use of daily/weekly assignments, group and individual projects, class participation, and computer/multimedia projects and less use of objective paper and pencil tests (see Table 1).

Regarding general resources used in the classroom, students indicated that the following were used (from most to least used): chalkboard, overheads, videotapes, computer labs, slides, maps, audiotapes, telecommunications, posters, and interactive television. They felt that much more use of computer labs and telecommunications and much less use of the chalkboard would make their learning more effective.

Moreover, the research team surveyed the current status of human resource use in classrooms and how students would like to see these resources used. Students indicated that at the time of the survey the kinds of human resources employed in their classrooms included guest lecturers, graduate and undergraduate teaching assistants, graduate and undergraduate discussion leaders, and team teachers. Students desired much more use of all human resources except graduate teaching assistants (see Table 1).

Students were asked how their teachers measured course effectiveness and what their preferences were for course evaluations; the options included standard university course evaluation forms, open-ended questions, videotapes, self-evaluation, peer observation, one-minute papers (Cross, 1990), Teaching Analysis By Students (Clinic, 1974), and outside consultants for both groups and individuals. Students desired more use of consultants and less use of the standard form in order to have the quality of teaching more accurately evaluated (see Table 1).

Faculty Survey Results

Faculty indicated that they taught in the following ways (from most to least used): lecture, small group discussion, large group discussion, media-based teaching, lab experiences, in-class writing, field experiences, and recitation sections. They desired to use less lecture and more small and large group discussion as well as field experiences in order to provide more effective instruction (see Table 2).

Faculty assessed student learning in the following ways (from most to least used): objective paper and pencil tests, essay paper and pencil tests, individual projects, daily/weekly assignments, class presentations, class participation, research papers, group projects, reports, computer/multimedia projects, and group papers. They desired to use more projects and computer/multimedia projects in order to better assess student learning (see Table 2).

Regarding resources, faculty used the following (from most to least used): chalkboard, overheads, videotapes, computer labs, audiotapes, telecommunications, maps, posters, and interactive television. They desired to use more videotapes, computer labs, telecommunications, and maps to enhance their teaching.

Faculty included the following human resources in their teaching (from most to least used): guest lecturers, undergraduate and graduate teaching assistants, graduate and undergraduate discussion leaders, and colleagues in team teaching. They desired to use more of all of the human resources listed to improve their teaching (see Table 2).

To evaluate the effectiveness of their courses, faculty used the standard form developed by the university, self-evaluation, open-ended questions, Teaching Analysis By Students (Clinic, 1974), one minute papers (Cross, 1990), and outside consultants for their classes. They desired to use more self-evaluation, open-ended questions, and peer obser-

TABLE 2.
FACULTY RESPONSES TO SURVEY

Methods *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* Used
Lecture	85.2%	95.1%
Small group discussion	73.8%	59.0%
Large group discussion	57.4%	57.4%
In-class writing	34.4%	34.4%
Recitation	24.6%	21.3%
Lab experiences	57.5%	49.2%
Media-based learning	65.6%	55.7%
Field experiences	44.3%	29.5%
Assess Learning *Type*	%Deemed *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Objective paper and pencil	68.9%	67.1%
Essay paper and pencil	59.0%	55.7%
Individual projects	57.1%	44.3%
Group projects	44.3%	32.8%
Group papers	16.4%	9.8%
Weekly assignments	45.9%	37.7%
Reports	29.5%	23.3%
Research papers	32.8%	34.1%
Class presentations	47.5%	37.1%
Class participation	47.5%	36.0%
Computer-multimedia assignments	27.9%	18.0%
Resources *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Chalkboard	90.2%	93.4%
Posters	11.5%	6.6%
Videotapes	80.3%	68.9%
Slides	59.0%	36.1%
Maps	19.7%	6.6%
Audiotapes	21.3%	19.7%
Overheads	83.6%	82.0%
Telecommunications	18.0%	1.6%
Interactive television	27.9%	8.2%
Computer labs	49.2%	26.2%
Human Resources *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Graduate TA	59.0%	31.1%
Undergraduate TA	50.8%	32.8%
Graduate discussion leader		
Undergraduate discussion leader	27.9%	13.3%
Guest lecturer	24.6%	9.8%
Team teaching	73.8%	49.2%
	47.5%	8.2%
Course Evaluation *Type*	*%Deemed* *Effective*	*%Actually* *Used*
Standard form	72.1%	85.2%
TABS	14.8%	14.8%
One-minute paper	16.4%	6.6%
Open-ended questions	47.5%	21.3%
Outside consultant—group	9.8%	1.6%
Outside consultant—individual	8.2%	0.0%
Peer observation	24.6%	0.0%
Self-evaluation	49.2%	26.2%
Videotape	8.2%	0.0%

vation and less use of the standard form in order to better evaluate their courses (see Table 2).

Focus Groups

Subjects

A student representative on the Task Force distributed a campus-wide call for students and faculty willing to participate in videotaped focus group discussions about teaching and learning on this midwestern university campus. Students, faculty, and whole classes were nominated or self-volunteered as potential participants.

Scheduling needs and the desire for representation from all collegiate units resulted in the following composition for the student and faculty groups:

a) There were 15 students participating in the focus group experience. Six males and 9 females represented all collegiate units. Eleven of the 15 were seniors.

b) Six females and 9 males representing all ranks from teaching specialist through professor composed the culturally diverse faculty focus groups. Some had just a few years of teaching while others had 30 years plus of classroom experience; they came from all collegiate units and 13 different departments.

Measures Used

Sets of questions were generated by faculty and student members of the research team to be used by the facilitator to guide discussion during videotaping of the focus groups. Faculty discussed a myriad of topics: beneficial teaching tools and activities, effective use of class time, methods of establishing a comfortable classroom climate, teacher and student roles, grading, examination preparation, modeling, the effects of class size on participation, connections to the "real world," resources, and the climate for diversity. Students discussed many of the same issues plus whether or not they valued other students' input and if they felt they had been challenged as students (see Appendix B for actual questions).

Procedures and Analysis

The research team inductively analyzed over four hours of focus group discussion and used emergent categories and themes. Research team members each viewed the tapes, took notes, and discussed nuances of potential meaning to reach consensus about conclusions.

Results

Student Focus Group Discussion Results

What students valued most about their college educations was learning to understand themselves better. They realized that knowing a process is more helpful than merely memorizing facts. The students viewed college as a transition to the "real world." Students felt professors could help them bridge the gap between the world of academe and real life by using relevant examples, giving concrete illustrations of applications, having students work in small groups, putting students in labs or project teams to problem solve, requiring students to make presentations in class, employing experiential learning, and having guest speakers. In particular, students praised internship and field opportunities. Students do learn from each other in small groups and desire variety in teaching methods.

Student discussants revealed a wide variety of student needs to be met by the institution. Students want more human resource contact at the university; they praised enthusiastic, caring professors. Students like to be genuinely invited into offices to talk. They want to work with teaching assistants and tutors who give them personal attention. They want to be treated with respect by those who teach them, and they do not want to be discriminated against. They appreciate the opportunity to provide feedback to help instructors become even better teachers.

Students expressed many concerns about the condition of classroom, lab, and studio facilities and equipment. Students do not feel the institution is keeping up with current technology in classrooms, labs, studios, or the library. The discussants saw the library as desperately in need of resources.

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Faculty Focus Group Discussion Results

Faculty stressed the importance of enthusiasm, encouragement, caring, involvement, interaction, problem solving, critical thinking, questioning, and discussion in the classroom. Many praised the merits of breaking a large group into small group structures to facilitate active learning. Understanding who students are and knowing their names are important in creating a positive classroom climate. But, lack of inviting hallways, classrooms, and library; dysfunctional or antiquated lab and AV equipment; "abysmal" decor; poor acoustics and ventilation systems; absence of small amounts of discretionary funds; and unavailability of technology detract from the university's teaching and learning mission.

Faculty stressed the need for the administration to concretely value teaching. Time, money, space, recognition, and rewards need to be dedicated to promoting quality teaching. A culture change is needed to realign reality and values which are given lip service. Faculty want time to engage with each other and the instructional development service to discuss and improve their teaching. They want updated equipment and classrooms and to be trained in technology/multimedia/interactive television applications. They value effective teaching and want to face the future maximizing the use of available tools and strategies. It is clear faculty believe that resources need to be reallocated to promote faculty development and raise the status of teaching on this medium-sized, midwestern university campus.

Conclusions and Implications

When the results of the faculty and student surveys and focus groups are analyzed, it is important to note that substantial agreement exists among and between faculty and students across levels and sizes of classes about what is desired to improve teaching and learning within this campus' classrooms. The data suggest that improvement is needed in seven different areas:

- Interpersonal and instructional climate within the classroom.
- Respect for diversity and teaching in practice that matches the words spoken.
- Use of human and technological resources to enhance small group and individual learning options.
- Use of realism to enhance teaching and learning (from field experiences to guest lecturers).
- Physical environment (from cleanliness to updated lab equipment).
- Understanding of students in a holistic way.
- Dialogue among and between faculty and students.

Implications for the Faculty Developer

Many of the changes needed on campus are related to communication issues. Communication must be improved among students, faculty, academic and student life administrators, computing services, the library, the instructional development service, and facilities management. Faculty developers must cultivate communication among these different groups by encouraging continued discussions and creating as many public forums as possible for information dissemination about the current situation on campus. Once all understand the needs that exist on campus, realistic strategic planning and implementation schedules can be established. Of course, items will have to be prioritized (Gardiner, 1992) in relation to time and money resources. Frequently major changes can be started with little money if faculty and administrative commitment are there.

Although the results of the research are of importance to other campuses, each campus has its own culture. It is imperative that each school survey its own faculty and student body via instruments and focus groups to accurately assess what is happening in classrooms at individual universities. Hence, the value of this article for a faculty developer may well be in adapting a successful process in your environment, not in reading about conditions on another campus.

Many faculty developers can read the pulse of their universities, but change cannot be accomplished without establishing partnerships. *Step One: Building the Data Base* demonstrates it is crucial to involve both students and faculty in the initial assessment process. By involving both groups, a partnership may be cemented in the endeavor to develop a plan to improve teaching and learning. Extending the partnership to other campus groups can be led by innovative developers and cooperative administrators.

In the future, it will become necessary to involve all facets of a university community in the assessment process. The efforts of this research focused on just two groups, faculty and students. But, as the responses to the surveys and focus group discussions suggest, the university is made up of many different units, all of which are here to fulfill the central mission of the institution: higher learning, study, and research.

Phase Two of the Partnership Model for Improving Teaching and Learning will involve faculty, student, staff, and administrator groups who will examine the assessment results noting similarities and differences in views. With appropriate facilitation, it will be possible to use the assessment results to engage in genuine dialogue about the roles both students and faculty play in improving teaching and learning. A plan for continued improvement in teaching and learning will be generated by those who have ownership in it.

At the end of each phase of the model, it is extremely important to disseminate information gleaned from the process of assessment. Developers and others involved in the process can write articles for campus faculty development newsletters and other local publications so that faculty may take the opportunity to respond to the comments made by their counterparts. Another vehicle that developers can make use of is the workshop setting where survey results and clips of focus groups can be shared. Faculty and students can see themselves and their colleagues engaged in constructive dialogue on the important issues of teaching and learning assessment.

The assessment procedure described in these pages argues for the implementation of a partnership model. It is the contention of the research team that partnerships must be forged among the most significant decision-makers within the culture of a college or university. A faculty developer can help these partnerships take form by facilitating communication among different groups within an institution. Faculty developers should connect these different groups—students, faculty, staff, and administrators—because all are involved in changing the university environment.

Summary

In summary, this article describes a process of soliciting both student and faculty input to assess the teaching and learning environment. The methods used to gather the information included surveys and focus groups. There is general agreement among faculty and students as to what is actually happening in the classroom. Additionally, both students and faculty agree that what is happening in the classroom is not necessarily what is desired for effective teaching and learning.

Finally, there is some disagreement among students and faculty as to desired activities. One job of the faculty developer is to bridge gaps in communication on campus by cementing partnerships among the units which compose the university. This article has shown the results of an initial partnership among faculty and students to assess the teaching and learning environment on a medium-sized, midwestern university. Readers are welcome to duplicate the research team's process, compare and contrast results, and disseminate those results.

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Helen Carlson is a Professor of Education; **Linda Hilsen** is an Associate Professor and the Coordinator of the Instructional Development Service; **Maureen O'Brien** is an Associate Professor and a Team Leader in Economics; and **Deborah Petersen-Perlman** is an Associate Professor of Communication. All four authors teach at the University of Minnesota, Duluth.

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Appendix A

TASK FORCE ON TEACHING AND LEARNING--STUDENT SURVEY

LEVEL ____________________

SIZE RANGE ____________________

FOR LARGE SIZED CLASSES (75-100)

1. **Which of the following do you think are effective in helping you learn in large classes? Check all that apply:**

☐ 1) Lecture
☐ 2) Small group discussion
☐ 3) Large group discussion
☐ 4) In-class writing
☐ 5) Recitation sessions
☐ 6) Laboratory experiences
☐ 7) Media-based learning experiences
☐ 8) Field experiences
☐ 9) Other, please specify ____________________

2. **Which of the following are most often used in your large classes? (If more than one are used please rank; 1 = most often)**

____ 1) Lecture
____ 2) Small group discussion
____ 3) Large group discussion
____ 4) In-class writing
____ 5) Recitation sessions
____ 6) Laboratory experiences
____ 7) Media-based learning experiences
____ 8) Field experiences
____ 9) Other, please specify ____________________

3. **Which of the following measures are effective in assessing your learning in your large classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Objective "paper & pencil" test
☐ 2) Essay "paper & pencil" test
☐ 3) Individual projects
☐ 4) Group projects
☐ 5) Group papers
☐ 6) Daily/weekly assignments
☐ 7) Reports
☐ 8) Research papers
☐ 9) Class presentations
☐ 10) Class participation/activities
☐ 11) Computer and/or multimedia assignment
☐ 12) Other, please specify ____________________

4. **Which of the following measures are most often used to assess your learning in large classes? (If more than one are used please rank; 1 = most often)**

____ 1) Objective "paper & pencil" test
____ 2) Essay "paper & pencil" test
____ 3) Individual projects
____ 4) Group projects
____ 5) Group papers
____ 6) Daily/weekly assignments
____ 7) Reports
____ 8) Research papers
___ 9) Class presentations
___ 10) Class participation/activities
___ 11) Computer &/or multimedia assgnmt
___ 12) Other, please specify ____________

5. **Which resources are effective in enhancing your learning in your large enrollment classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Chalkboard
☐ 2) Posters
☐ 3) Videotapes
☐ 4) Slides
☐ 5) Maps
☐ 6) Audiotapes
☐ 7) Overhead transparencies
☐ 8) Interactive media
☐ 9) Telecommunication linkages
☐ 10) Computer labs/computers
☐ 11) Other, please specify ______________________

6. **Which resources are actually used by your instructors in large enrollment classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Chalkboard
☐ 2) Posters
☐ 3) Videotapes
☐ 4) Slides
☐ 5) Maps
☐ 6) Audiotapes
☐ 7) Overhead transparencies
☐ 8) Interactive media
☐ 9) Telecommunication linkages
☐ 10) Computer labs/computers
☐ 11) Other, please specify ______________________

7. **Which kinds of assistance are effective in helping you learn in large enrollment classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Graduate teaching assistants
☐ 2) Undergraduate teaching assistants
☐ 3) Graduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 4) Undergraduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 5) Guest lecturers
☐ 6) Team teaching
☐ 7) Other, please specify______________________________

8. **What kinds of assistance does your instructor use in teaching large enrollment classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Graduate teaching assistants
☐ 2) Undergraduate teaching assistants
☐ 3) Graduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 4) Undergraduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 5) Guest lecturers
☐ 6) Team teaching
☐ 7) Other, please specify______________________________

9. **Which of the following course evaluation tools are used in your large classes on a regular basis? Check all that apply.**

	Daily	Weekly	Mid-Term	End-Term
Standard form	☐	☐	☐	☐
TABS (Administered by IDS)	☐	☐	☐	☐
One-minute paper	☐	☐	☐	☐
Open-ended questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
Outside consultant interviewing class as a group	☐	☐	☐	☐
Outside consultant interviewing individual students	☐	☐	☐	☐
Peer observations	☐	☐	☐	☐
Self-evaluation	☐	☐	☐	☐
Video tape	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. **Which of the following course evaluation tools do you think allows you to provide the most useful information needed by your instructors in large classes to make continuous improvements? (If you check more than one, please rank; 1 = most useful.)**

Rank
☐ ____ Standard form
☐ ____ TABS (Administered by IDS)
☐ ____ One-minute paper
☐ ____ Open-ended questions
☐ ____ Outside consultant interviewing class as a group
☐ ____ Outside consultant interviewing individual students
☐ ____ Peer observations
☐ ____ Self-evaluation
☐ ____ Video tape

TASK FORCE ON TEACHING AND LEARNING--FACULTY SURVEY

LEVEL ______________________________
SIZE RANGE ______________________________

FOR MEDIUM SIZED CLASSES (35-74)

1. **Which of the following do you think are effective in teaching medium classes? Check all that apply:**

☐ 1) Lecture
☐ 2) Small group discussion
☐ 3) Large group discussion
☐ 4) In-class writing
☐ 5) Recitation sessions
☐ 6) Laboratory experiences
☐ 7) Media-based learning experiences
☐ 8) Field experiences
☐ 9) Other, please specify ______________________________

2. **What percentage of the time do you actually use the following methods in teaching medium classes?**

____ 1) Lecture
____ 2) Small group discussion
____ 3) Large group discussion
____ 4) In-class writing
____ 5) Recitation sessions
____ 6) Laboratory experiences
____ 7) Media-based learning experiences
____ 8) Field experiences
____ 9) Other, please specify ______________________________

3. **Which of the following student performance evaluation measures are effective in assessing student learning in your medium classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Objective "paper & pencil" test
☐ 2) Essay "paper & pencil" test
☐ 3) Individual projects
☐ 4) Group projects
☐ 5) Group papers
☐ 6) Daily/weekly assignments
☐ 7) Reports
☐ 8) Research papers
☐ 9) Class presentations
☐ 10) Class participation/activities
☐ 11) Computer and/or multimedia assignment
☐ 12) Other, please specify ______________________

4. **What percentage of the students' final grade is determined by the following in your medium classes?**

____ 1) Objective "paper & pencil" test
____ 2) Essay "paper & pencil" test
____ 3) Individual projects
____ 4) Group projects
____ 5) Group papers
____ 6) Daily/weekly assignments
____ 7) Reports
____ 8) Research papers
____ 9) Class presentations
____ 10) Class participation/activities
____ 11) Computer &/or multimedia assgnmt
____ 12) Other, please specify ________________

5. **Which resources are effective in teaching medium enrollment classes? Check all that apply.**

☐ 1) Chalkboard
☐ 2) Posters
☐ 3) Videotapes
☐ 4) Slides
☐ 5) Maps
☐ 6) Audiotapes
☐ 7) Overhead transparencies
☐ 8) Interactive media
☐ 9) Telecommunication linkages
☐ 10) Computer labs/computers
☐ 11) Other, please specify
____

6. Which resources do you actually use in teaching medium enrollment classes? Check all that apply.

☐ 1) Chalkboard
☐ 2) Posters
☐ 3) Videotapes
☐ 4) Slides
☐ 5) Maps
☐ 6) Audiotapes
☐ 7) Overhead transparencies
☐ 8) Interactive media
☐ 9) Telecommunication linkages
☐ 10) Computer labs/computers
☐ 11) Other, please specify ____________________

7. Which kinds of assistance are effective in teaching medium enrollment classes? Check all that apply.

☐ 1) Graduate teaching assistants
☐ 2) Undergraduate teaching assistants
☐ 3) Graduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 4) Undergraduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 5) Guest lecturers
☐ 6) Team teaching
☐ 7) Other, please specify____________________

8. Which kinds of assistance do you actually use in teaching medium enrollment classes? Check all that apply.

☐ 1) Graduate teaching assistants
☐ 2) Undergraduate teaching assistants
☐ 3) Graduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 4) Undergraduate discussion/recitation leaders
☐ 5) Guest lecturers
☐ 6) Team teaching
☐ 7) Other, please specify____________________

9. Which of the following course evaluation tools do you use in your medium classes on a regular basis? Check all that apply and when you use the tools.

	Daily	Weekly	Mid-Term	End-Term
Standard form	☐	☐	☐	☐
TABS (Administered by IDS)	☐	☐	☐	☐
One-minute paper	☐	☐	☐	☐
Open-ended questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
Outside consultant interviewing class as a group	☐	☐	☐	☐
Outside consultant interviewing individual students	☐	☐	☐	☐
Peer observations	☐	☐	☐	☐
Self-evaluation	☐	☐	☐	☐
Video tape	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. **Which of the following course evaluation tools do you think provides you with the most useful information needed to make continuous improvements in your teaching performance in medium classes? (If you check more than one, please rank; 1 = most useful.)**

Rank

☐ ____ Standard form
☐ ____ TABS (Administered by IDS)
☐ ____ One-minute paper
☐ ____ Open-ended questions
☐ ____ Outside consultant interviewing class as a group
☐ ____ Outside consultant interviewing individual students
☐ ____ Peer observations
☐ ____ Self-evaluation
☐ ____ Video tape

APPENDIX B

3/30/94

Questions for Students during Videotaping of Focus Group Sessions
(Linda Hilsen, Deborah Petersen-Perlman, Matthew Spearman)

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this video.

1. What kinds of activities or teaching tools help you learn?
2. In your experience, what's the best way for you to spend time in class?
3. What are things your teachers do that make you feel comfortable in the classroom?
4. What is your role (as a student) in the classroom? What are your responsibilities within the classroom environment?
5. What is the teacher's job/responsibility both in and outside of the classroom?
6. Overall, considering all the classes you have taken, do you think the grades you have received accurately represent the effort you have expended? Why, or why not?
7. Are there things teachers do that help you get ready for exams?
8. Do your teachers offer models of the kinds of assignments that they expect you to submit for a grade? Please offer any examples of successful modeling or situations when you might have benefitted from a model.
9. How do you feel about talking in large classes?
10. Do you value the input of other students within your classes? Why, or why not?
11. Have you been challenged as a student? Please be specific.
12. Do you feel your education is preparing you for the "real" job world? If yes, in what ways has it accomplished that task? If no, in what ways has it failed?
13. How would you characterize the climate for diversity within the classes you have taken? Is the reading list diverse? In what ways are diverse learning styles accommodated? In what ways are issues of diversity relevant within every class at UMD?
14. What kinds of resources have been most useful to you in your learning experiences at UMD (e.g. teaching assistants, audio-visual materials, laboratories, specialized equipment, etc.)? Have these resources been sufficient?

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3/30/94

Questions for Teachers during Videotaping of Focus Group Sessions
(Deborah Petersen-Perlman)

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this video.

1. What have you found to be the most beneficial teaching tools and/or activities in terms of facilitating student learning?
2. What's the best way for you to spend time in class?
3. What kinds of things, if any, do you do to try to make your students feel comfortable?
4. How do you see your role as teacher in the classroom? What is your role? What are your responsibilities?
5. What is the student's role in the classroom? What are the responsibilities of being a student in the classroom?
6. Overall, considering all of the classes you have taught, do you think the grades your students have received accurately reflect the effort they have expended?
7. Are there things you do specifically to help students prepare for your exams? If yes, what kinds of things do you do? If no, why not?
8. Do you offer models of the kinds of assignments that you expect your students to submit for a grade? Please offer examples of successful models you've provided as well as situations where you might have used a model to greater benefit.
9. Do you teach large classes? If so, how do you handle class participation?
10. How do you see the role of education in terms of preparing students for the "real" job world?
11. How would you characterize the climate for diversity within UMD's classrooms?
12. What resources have been available to you to facilitate your teaching (e.g. teaching assistants, audio-visual materials, laboratories, specialized equipment, etc.)? Have these resources been sufficient?

By Edward S. Beckstrom

Celebrating Diversity in Community: Creativity as a College Institute Day Experience

The risk of taking a creative approach to a community college "institute day" is explored. With a focus on creativity the college's effort to develop and conduct an event that involved the active participation of the college community and was enjoyable is discussed. The impact of the day's experience, both short- and long- range is shared.

AHA! EXPERIENCE the AHA! In October 1994, McHenry County College staff and faculty experienced an institute day unlike any other. Sufi dancing! Mandala workshop! Mindmapping! These and many more activities designed to encourage and enhance creativity made up the college's annual day-long staff development effort. The success of this effort came as a result of a cooperative effort on the part of lots of folks who shared a firm belief that creativity is within everyone and that the college needed to provide a means to enkindle that creative spirit. We share with you that journey.

Our challenge was to create something of interest and benefit to a diverse population consisting of 77 full time faculty, 200 adjunct faculty, 30 administrators and mid-managers, 20 professionals, 51 full time classified staff and 85 part time classified staff. The steering committee worked to design something that everyone would feel a part of and that would be meaningful, interesting, and fun.

Project Description

For several years the college sent selected individuals to attend the *Creative Problem Solving Institute* conducted by the Creative Education Foundation in Buffalo, New York. These few individuals saw a need to share with their colleagues some of their interest and enthusiasm in creativity. The college's staff development committee was approached in Fall 1993 with a proposal that the Fall 1994 Institute Day might have as its theme: Experiencing Creativity. With the committee's approval, we started our efforts.

The first order of business was to establish a steering committee. The call went out to the college community asking for volunteers. It was important that we had representation from as broad a spectrum of employees as possible. We actively sought out individuals and representatives from management, classified staff, adjunct faculty and full-time faculty volunteered for the committee. The importance of the steering committee cannot be overstated. It was necessary that these individuals had a willingness to take risks and, of course, share in the responsibility of creating the experience. We wanted the Institute Day to reflect its theme: creativity, and this meant that whatever we did needed to be different from previous institute days. The steering committee consisted of five full-time faculty, one adjunct faculty, three full time classified staff, one professional, and three administrators/mid managers.

The steering committee met bi-weekly from January to October Members of the committee took on various responsibilities

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and roles as committee needs evolved over time. The committee approached its responsibilities in a creative and open manner realizing the importance of modeling the very ideas we were hoping to encourage. It really couldn't have been otherwise. The individuals participating were enthusiastic and very creative. We called ourselves the "committee of divergers" and often needed to work hard at coming to closure. A look at the evolution of our efforts reflects the contributions of those individual members and the success of a real team effort.

With the steering committee in place, some basic themes needed to be established and an initial framework for the day needed to be developed. The committee established three basic aims for the institute day: first, we wanted individuals to learn something about creativity, second, we wanted individuals to have the opportunity to experience their own creativity, and finally, we wanted everyone to have fun. There were two underlying premises to our efforts. First, we wanted as many of the activities to be experiential—hands-on—as possible. We did allow for a limited number of lecture format sessions to give those uncomfortable with experiential activities some opportunity to participate comfortably. The second premise was that we wanted all segments of the college community to have the opportunity to participate. It was important to try to include in the activities those individuals who are often overlooked in staff development efforts: part-time staff and adjunct faculty. With these themes in mind, we began to look at the day.

We saw the day as one of active participation. Workshops were to be held morning, afternoon (for full-time faculty and day staff), and evening (for adjunct faculty and evening staff) with enough activities to allow individuals to select those most valuable to them. A closing ceremony needed to be designed to celebrate and bring closure to the day's activities.

The committee first faced the challenge of finding the appropriate keynote presenter and identifying the activities or workshops. The keynote presenter was worked on first. We needed to find a keynote presenter who could set the right tone for the day: risk taking and growth. The college was fortunate to find available Dr. William Sturner, founder of Helicon: The Creative Centre, to be the keynote presenter and a session presenter. Given a limited budget, the staff development committee needed to use resources creatively. Through cooperation and a combining of resources from other college sources the committee was able to fund Dr. Sturner's activities. The college's Community Services Department contributed to the effort by arranging for a for-the-public presentation on the Monday night before the Tuesday Institute Day. Other funds were made available through the college's Cultural Diversity Grant. The funding enabled the staff development committee to have Dr. Sturner for the keynote address entitled "Leadership and the Art of Taking Risks" which he repeated for the evening session. In addition, Dr. Sturner conducted a workshop entitled "Impact: Increasing the Creativity of Your Organization".

Although the steering committee had been meeting regularly since January, we had only ideas and no commitments for specific workshops by the end of summer. We diverged and converged to generate a general plan for the day so we decided to use the Fall Semester Workshops in August to get a better sense of what faculty and staff might be ready for. At the Fall Semester Workshops the committee made a presentation to the college community and conducted an initial survey asking what types of activities staff might be interested in. The purposes of this survey were threefold: to get a sense of the range of interests of the staff, to communicate to the staff the scope and breadth of activity possibilities being considered by the Steering Committee, and to communicate our commitment to having college-wide involvement in the planning and participation of the day. As a result of the survey we were able to identify the areas that engendered the most interest, and we began to focus on specifically identifying what workshops would be best. By early September we began in earnest to approach individuals about the possibility of offering a workshop. Members of the committee attended meetings of college constituent groups, eg. Staff Council, Faculty Association, and the mid-management group. Memoranda were distributed asking for volunteers and committee members personally solicited individuals to participate.

In early fall people started to come forward with amazing results! The creative ideas and willingness to participate by leading workshops were beyond our expectations. The Children's Learning Center offered "Rediscover a Childlike Creativity", where participants were invited to do science activities, create a book, paint, etc. and through those "child" activities connect into their adult creative processes. The Biology Department presented "Where the Isopods Live," an activity where participants learned the scientific method by making observations, performing experiments, and drawing conclusions. The Fitness Center conducted a "Body Buddy Building Competition", where team building skills were developed through cooperative problem-solving that challenged the mind and body in various physical activities. Individuals offered to do workshops on creativity and music, synergy, non-competitive games, meditation, Sufi dancing, using computers to solve problems, dancing meditation, creating mandalas, creative problem-solving in small groups and mind-mapping. The activities fell into place.

The steering committee designed two all-day opportunities to add an interesting dimension to the idea of "experiencing creativity": a Quiet Room and a Graffiti Room. The Quiet Room was a room set aside for reflection and meditation. We selected a room located somewhat apart from the day's other activities and took all furniture out of the room. We placed white sheets on the floor of the room and provided soft, meditative background music, and the aromatic smell of fresh herbs. The intent was to provide a space for people to go for quiet time and reflection. The Graffiti Room was set aside for individuals to express themselves with crayon, chalk, markers, etc. on paper covering the wall.

To celebrate and provide closure to the day's activities we planned closing ceremony. The committee wanted everyone to get an idea of what had happened in each of the special activities. To accomplish this we hired a student to videotape parts of each session and the various events of the day. The student then created a half hour video tape of the day. Combined with the music selected for the closing, the video show was a hit! In addition to the video show, door prizes were awarded (prizes obtained by donation) during the closing activity. This was the first time something like this was done at a staff development activity and an appreciated "touch" according to the participant evaluations submitted after the workshops. The final piece to the closing event was the sharing of the song *Song of the Soul.*

No effort of this magnitude would be a success without the generation of interest through communication with the college staff. The steering committee was concerned that an event with so much emphasis on active participation and with a theme of "Experiencing Creativity" might not have an appeal, or worse, might generate resistance or too much uneasiness. We began communicating to the college community our efforts leading toward the Institute Day. By attending meetings of different constituent groups at the college and by keeping the Staff Development Committee apprised of what was being planned, the steering committee was able to prepare the college for the activities to come. As was mentioned earlier, the Fall Semester Workshops provided an opportunity to communicate to the staff the scope and breadth of activity possibilities being considered by the steering committee. In early September, an article was included in the in-house newsletter, *Bagpipes,* and in early October, a flyer went out with specific and detailed activities indicated. The flyer also included puzzles and brain teasers (the answers to which were to be provided at the Institute Day) and a door prize "ticket" to be used on the day of the activity.

Results

Frequently staff development efforts of the nature of the one discussed in this article have significant immediate positive impact and this effort was no exception. The evaluation responses bear this out. Of concern to the college, however, was the long-term impact of such an effort.

As an attempt to assess a longer range impact of the institute day, we conducted a survey in June 1995—eight months after the activity. Two hundred and eight individuals were sent a questionnaires. Twenty-seven (13%) individuals responded. The results of the survey were generally encouraging. Sixteen of the individuals responding indicated that the day had a positive effect on their professional (work) experiences or a positive effect on their personal life or both. Some of the positive changes reflected were:

- I am aware of the need to move from abstract planning to active experimentation.
- Take more time to have fun. Interact with new staff I meet. Encourage students to utilize departments I visited.
- I'm much more receptive to new ideas.
- I have taken some risk outside the college—being a leader or taking the initiative in problem solving. I have tried to be less shy and more outgoing.

Some of the things that individuals tried after the institute day experience that they might not have tried before their participation in the day were:

- games in Early Childhood; fitness games
- encourage divergent thinking in the classroom
- continued my PhD. program

Of the individuals responding, 14 indicated that, for the most part, the day had no lasting effect on them or their lives. For some, no particular risks were taken nor any specific behavioral changes were identified but the day reinforced or supported already existing attitudes or behaviors:

- confirmed my approach to teaching by *involving* my students, following their interests insofar as possible
- I have more confidence in the "whole impact" way of problem-solving; I used it in a casual way previous to institute day
- I have not changed (to my knowledge) because of the Institute Day. However, I try, as part of my normal life to be creative in my approach to things (and people)
- I tend to be entrepreneurial type, anyway, but the day reaffirmed my approaches.

Only six of the individuals responding indicated no desire to have another institute day like *Experiencing Creativity*. Those that responded positively to having another such day had some interesting recommendations. Some of the recommendations were institutional-specific, others more generic:

- Needs follow-up activities to keep this concept in mind for a longer period of time
- more emphasis on stress reduction, morale-building, etc.
- I'd rather see *practical* workshops relevant to my job
- continue to provide choices/option; as people have different "comfort" levels. Offer high risk (or involvement or difficulty), middle risk and low risk group activities
- anything additional and recent to do with microcomputers
- more participating experiences alone or with others doing things rather than discussion. Nature walk - Bio/Sci Lab - Art project
- this sort of experience should be an annual kick-off event for the school year, to get everybody off and running emotionally and psychologically. It's a renewal event!

Along with the formal assessment anecdotal evidence indicates that the experiences of the day had impact beyond the immediate "good feeling" of that day. Examples of such impact are as follows:

- A faculty member from the Speech Department indicated to the author in April 1995, that *based on her experiences in a workshop taken in the institute day*, she used a group drawing exercise to help students learn the "parts of a good speech". Students formed into groups of three or four and with the use of crayons and flip chart paper were asked to draw the parts of a good speech. Students from the Fall 1994 semester where she first used the exercise expressed to her some months after the experience that the one thing they remembered of the class was the parts of a good speech *because she had them draw them out during a special exercise*. Students, according to the teacher, have responded well to this activity—something she would not have tried had it not been for her experiences in the institute day.
- For several months after the event, staff and faculty, but particularly staff, related to the author how much they enjoyed the day and that "it was one of the best" or "we should do it again". Such comments usually included observations that what they liked was having choice and being considered as a peer and colleague (I read person) rather than someone who holds a particular position in the organization.

The evidence, both formal and anecdotal, seems to indicate that there is a strong need and desire to have activities and events such as the one described. Obviously, everyone is not open to nor do all benefit from such experiences.

While the evidence from the survey and from individuals do reflect *individual* responses to the experience, no evidence has been collected reflecting *institutional* benefits from the experience. One can presume, however, that there is a link between what was reflected in those individual responses and some impact on the organization. Opportunities to play, celebrate and create have a renewing effect on organizations and such renewal is often manifested in subtle yet important ways. Perhaps it's a more friendly atmosphere. Perhaps it's more honest and open communication. Perhaps it's individuals seeing things in a new light and being more creative in their responses to problems or concerns. What can be said is that, at McHenry County College at least, the efforts to celebrate diversity through creativity had positive and, perhaps, lasting effects which would be enhanced and strengthened with related connecting activities.

Summary and Conclusions

The Institute Day went very well and, according to the evaluations received, was a success. In addition, members of the steering and Staff Development Committees received numerous positive comments from individuals regarding the Institute Day Activities. In general, those who participated found the day to be energizing and uplifting. The remarks indicated that it was important to the classified staff to feel as equals (to administration and faculty) in something. The idea of allowing individuals to select an activity from among many was well-received. The idea of choice was important.

Perhaps the one major disappointment of the day was the lack of participation in the evening activities. Very few adjunct faculty and evening part-time staff took advantage of the opportunities provided by the institute day. We ended up canceling some of the evening workshops for lack of participants. A follow-up survey is being conducted to enable the staff development committee to assess this phenomenon.

Overall, the tenor of the day was positive and enjoyable. For most participants, a little bit of creativity was experienced, everyone learned something creative, and we all had fun. (Well, most everyone had fun—one or two individuals just couldn't lie back and enjoy!) The important point is that creativity workshops can work, and staff development efforts don't have to be dry and talk-to affairs. Participation energizes people. The McHenry County College community is stronger having had an experience on creativity where the strengths of its diverse and creative staff were shared and celebrated. Taking risks was indeed beneficial to this community college.

Edward S. Beckstrom, Ed.D. is the Associate Dean of Occupational Education Business at McHenry County College; Crystal Lake, Illinois, 60012.

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By Michael Miller, Thomas McCormack & Richard Newman

Faculty Involvement in Governance: A Comparison of Two Faculties

Joint participation by faculty and administrators has been advocated as a key factor in developing consensus, effective planning and plan implementation, and developing a culture which supports the decision making process. The current study examined faculty perceptions of an "ideal" governance process and a perception of the roles faculty believe they have in the governance process.

HIGHER EDUCATION governance has been the subject of much, often conflicting, research. Birnbaum (1992) concluded that no specific governance pattern assures success, yet Bergman (1991) identified a number of barriers which could effectively deter success in any academic administration. The result has been an increased attention toward varying levels of communication between constituencies which have a "stake" in the higher education enterprise (Gilmour, 1991). Additional attention has focused on developing feelings of ownership among faculty toward various components and processes in institutional decision making (Miller & Seagren, 1993).

In addition to the barriers inherent in the concept of faculty involvement in governance, institutional characteristics play a major role in involving different actors in the governance process (Birnbaum, 1988). These differences have often been articulated by viewing different sizes of institutions and the faculty member's perceived primary function. Faculty in large research universities, for example, may feel isolated to their academic unit or department, and may not see themselves as important in the institution's overall decision making. Further, faculty in these large institutions may view themselves as important in curricular decision making at the departmental level, but may feel excluded from faculty senates or councils (Birnbaum, 1991; Boyd, 1985).

The purpose for conducting the current study was to examine the concept of how faculty view themselves participating intheir institution's governance process. Considering different types of institutional missions and characteristics, the study was also designed to examine the differences in faculty perceptions based on the type of institution.

Background Of The Study

Institutional governance has grown to its current status through a passing on of tradition and expectation (Kerr, 1991). Faculty involvement in institutional governance became the focus of attention for scholars, administrators, and faculty as a result of the American Association of University Professors creation of the Committee on the Place and Function of Faculties in University Governance and Administration in 1916 (Schuster, 1991). The need to continue directing activities at improving the governance of higher education institutions has been reported consistently throughout the past four decades (Lazarsfeld & Seiber, 1964; Carnegie Foundation, 1982; Kerr, 1991). Evidence of

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this need was presented in the Carnegie Foundation's (1989) report that half of all college faculty believed their institution was not effectively managed, and charges that administration in many institutions was "bloated" (Bergman, 1991).

The apparent danger of governing an institution without the support and input of faculty may result in creating feelings of alienation and resentment which may hinder decision making and policy implementation (Bing & Dye, 1992). Additionally, participative governance systems are based on mutual feelings of trust and faith between faculty and administrators, values which may be sacrificed or inverted by use of a hierarchical decision-making model (Miller & Seagren, 1993).

The apparent crisis in higher education related to governance has been traced to a number of factors. Kerr (1991) described a campus climate divided among interest groups, where coexistence rather than unity is a way of life. Lazarsfeld and Sieber (1964) reported an "academic power vacuum," where faculty and administrators were removed from the faculty in academic decision making, and where institutional governance moved slowly.

Despite reports of a segmented campus, faculty bodies created to enhance participation in governance have survived. While the goals of these organizations have not consistently been achieved (Birnbaum, 1991), they have gained more respect on campus in recent years. Spinrad (1984), Keller (1983), and Baldridge (1982) have all questioned whether a participative governance structure is even possible in practice. Others (Miller & Seagren, 1993) have claimed that faculty participation in governance is feasible on a practical level, and that strategies need to be developed to enhance this implementation.

Recognizing the potential differences between institutions, a common assumption has been accepted by virtually all in the governance of higher education: no single system of governance works in every institution (Carnegie Commission, 1973). The size of an institution, for example, has been described as a factorwhich influences the demands placed on faculty and whether they have the rewards, motivations, and resources to participate in governance activities (Rourke & Brooks, 1966; Keller, 1983).

For the purpose of the current study, faculty participation in governance activities was assumed to be a positive mechanism for enhancing the effective administration of higher education institutions. Governance was operationally viewed as a process of making decisions and was distinctly different from "management." Additionally, Rourke and Brooks' (1966) and Keller's (1983) claim that faculty may have a difference of opinion on participation in governance based on institutional size provided the conceptual framework for conducting the current study.

Methods

An examination of existing literature served as the framework for developing a 25-item researcher-developed questionnaire (see Appendix A). Included in the 25-item instrument were two sub-scales related to the characteristics of an ideal governance process and the roles faculty play in their current governance process. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with each item using a 1-to-5 Likert-type scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree). The two sub-scales, which consisted of five items each, were used to obtain data for the current study. The instrument was examined by a panel of experts for face reliability, and was pilot-tested to assure internal validity.

Data were collected in the 1993-1994 and 1994-1995 academic years at two universities. One institution had a research-focused mission, an enrollment of approximately 20,000 students, and was located in the Southeastern United States. The other institution, a comprehensive teaching university of 2,500 students, was located in the Midwestern United States. The institutions were selected based on their willingness to participate in the study. At the large research university, a sample of 150 was randomly selected from full-time teaching faculty. At the small private comprehensive university, the entire full-time faculty of 72 was selected for study. Each faculty was administered the questionnaire through internal postal services, with a cover letter describing the purpose of the study.

Results

Through the use of follow up mailings to all faculty, a total of 140 responses were returned and deemed usable for the purposes of the study. The respondents included 43 (60%) from the small comprehensive private university, and 97 (61%) from the large public university.

Ideal Governance Process: While Birnbaum (1991) reported that no single system of governance was appropriate for all types of institutions, five characteristics were identified which potentially represented characteristics of an "ideal" governance process. Faculty from the private institution agreed most strongly with the concept that the faculty senate or similar group be utilized as a conduit through which faculty participation can be solicited by the administration (mean 3.86). They also agreed (mean 3.70) that institutional procedures should involve faculty early in the decision making process (see Table 1). These same faculty had the lowest level of agreement on additional rewards for participation in governance (mean 2.17).

TABLE 1
Ratings of Characteristics of an Ideal Governance Process

Characteristic	Private U. Faculty Mean (SD)	Public U. Faculty Mean (SD)
Faculty rewarded for participation	2.17 (0.902)	3.60 (1.080)*
Empowered to question policy	3.50 (1.390)	2.81 (1.277)*
Faculty senate used to solicit participation	3.86 (1.220)	3.49 (1.370)
Involve faculty early in the decision making	3.70 (1.343)	3.48 (1.042)
Use neutral consultants to mediate	3.15 (1.210)	2.87 (0.844)

*Significantly different, alpha = .05, t = .0001 and .0059 respectively.

Faculty from the public university agreed most strongly with the idea of providing additional "rewards" for faculty who participate in governance-related activities (mean 3.60). Similar to their private institution peers, these faculty also agreed that their faculty senate should be utilized as a conduit for soliciting faculty participation (mean 3.49). These faculty had the lowest agreement on empowering faculty to question policy decisions through a well articulated process (mean 2.81).

Using a two-tailed t-test, a significant difference was identified between the private and public university faculty rating of faculty rewards for participation (alpha = .05; t = .0001). A significant difference was also found between private and public university faculty rating of empower faculty to question policy (alpha = .05; t = .0059).

Roles of Faculty in Governance: The five roles included on the survey instrument were taken from the existing literature base, and framed as the question "what is the role of the faculty in the governance process?" Private university faculty agreed that faculty should be more involved in developing specific outcomes for budgetary expenditures (mean 4.31), followed closely by insisting on rights and responsibilities in appropriate governance roles (mean 4.28; see Table 2). These faculty agreed least that their committees should work harder to cooperate with their institution's administration.

TABLE 2
Ratings of Faculty Roles in the Governance Process

Role	Private U. Faculty Mean (SD)	Public U. Faculty Mean (SD)
Faculty have a valuable role in decision making	3.97 (1.262)	4.10 (0.756)
Faculty have rights in appropriate governance functions (curriculum, admissions, etc.)	4.28 (0.693)	4.27 (0.624)
Work harder to cooperate with administration	3.28 (0.897)	3.12 (0.869)
Clarify roles of policy administration and imposition	3.97 (1.026)	3.56 (1.009)
Involved in developing specific budget outcomes	4.31 (0.739)	3.69 (0.954)*

*Significantly different, alpha = .05, t = .0004.

The public university faculty reported the strongest agreement on insisting on rights and responsibilities in appropriate governance roles (mean 4.27), but also agreed strongly with the idea that faculty have a role in convincing their administration that the faculty "voice" is a valuable component in decision making (mean 4.10). These faculty paralleled their private university counterparts in agreeing least with the idea that faculty committees should work harder to cooperate with their administration (mean 3.12).

Again using a two-tailed t-test, a significant difference was found to exist in the private and public university faculty rating of involving faculty in developing specific outcomes for budgets (alpha = .05; t = .0004). In this difference, private university faculty strongly agreed more with the statement than their public university colleagues.

Discussion and Implications

The purpose for conducting the study was to examine the perceptions of an ideal governance process at two vastly different types of higher education institutions: a small private comprehensive university and a large public research-oriented university.

Respondents from the two institutions demonstrated significant differences of perceptions on two of the five characteristics on the ideal governance sub-scale. For faculty being rewarded for participation in the governance process, the private institution faculty were less supportive in their response than the public university, which may have indicated that faculty at the private university perceived participation as an innate duty or privilege not deserving or requiring reward, or that participation was inherent in the governance process because of tradition and practice. Also, these differences seemed to indicate that time and effort expended in the governance process was justified because of the values associated with participation and the contribution to overall consensus.

Responses from the public institution were more supportive of the characteristic for rewarding faculty for participation, which may have indicated: (1) more "private" time is required for research to support nomination for tenure; (2) faculty were isolated and activities were confined to program areas, thus leaving governance responsibilities to elected representatives; and (3) historically, faculty participation has been a "waste of time" because of the innocuous areas under discussion.

The second characteristic of the subscale, relating to the empowerment of the faculty to question policy, was strongly supported by the private university, which may have reflected an academic environment encouraging participative governance, freedom of expression, and critical analysis on sensitive issues. The public university's faculty responses may have indicated a more structured governance process culminating with a hierarchial perception of decision making. This may have also been indicative of a complex decision-making process which requires longer "lead time" with little reinforcement or appreciation for considering alternative solutions, and a perception of too many important decisions being made at board, state, and national levels without faculty representation.

Although not statistically significant, the concept of using neutral consultants to mediate problems was supported slightly more by the private faculty (mean 3.15), which may have indicated that faculty perceive "some" problems as being best resolved by third parties rather than internally. The public institution faculty slightly disagreeing (mean 2.87) may have indicated that issues can best be resolved within the framework of the existing structure, or that seeking outside assistance is an admittance of internal failure. Also, the idea of "neutral consultants" raises the issue of collective bargaining, which some consider a threat to an ideal governance process.

The results of the survey indicate that there is a vast opportunity for faculty, administrators, and others in academic-support positions to improve participatory governance activities. While the need for further research appears obvious based on the existing literature body, particular efforts need to be targeted at processes of communication and joint-decision making. Only through extending current research to include the processes as well as the processors will participatory governance maximize its potential as a tool for improving the management and administration of higher education.

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Dr. Michael T. Miller is the Assistant Professor and Chair at the Higher Education Research Institute in the Area of Professional Studies, 206 Wilson Hall, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487. **Mr. Thomas F. McCormack** is the Dean of the College, Marion Military Institute, Marion, AL 36756. **Dr. Richard E. Newman** is an Assistant Professor of Physical Education, University of Arkansas, Monticello, P. O. Box 2134, Monticello, AK 71656.

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Appendix A

SURVEY OF PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The purpose for conducting this survey is to identify the perceptions of faculty relative to issues of governance in higher education. The focus is the institution's governance body, usually called a "Faculty Senate." Your perceptions of the faculty governance body is requested, and your responses will be held in strictest confidence. Only group data will be reported.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your governance body. Circle one response for each item using the following scale: SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; N=Neutral; A=Agree; or SA=Strongly Agree.

1.	Our governance body adequately represents the faculty point of view.	SD	D	N	A	SA
2.	Our governance body is well represented on committees making decisions on policy, planning, and allocation of resources.	SD	D	N	A	SA
3.	The governance body operates efficiently.	SD	D	N	A	SA
4.	The governance body attracts the most capable people as members.	SD	D	N	A	SA
5.	The governance body's operating budget is adequate.	SD	D	N	A	SA
6.	Communication is good between the governance body and academic administrators.	SD	D	N	A	SA
7.	Communication is good between the governance body and the Board of Trustees.	SD	D	N	A	SA
8.	Governance body members and academic administrators meet regularly.	SD	D	N	A	SA
9.	Governance body representatives and the Board of Trustees meet regularly.	SD	D	N	A	SA

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; N=Neutral; A=Agree; or SA=Strongly Agree

10. Our governance body is involved in important decisions about the way the institution is run. SD D N A SA

11. Academic administrators' and governance body expectations regarding the governance body's role are the same. SD D N A SA

12. It is difficult to get people to serve on governance body standing and/or ad hoc committees. SD D N A SA

13. Management information is readily provided to the governance body concerning issues it considers. SD D N A SA

14. Our governance body leaders are well prepared to assume their positions. SD D N A SA

15. Issues considered by our governance body are important. SD D N A SA

Characteristics of an ideal governance process are:

16. Faculty members are adequately rewarded for their participation in the governance process. SD D N A SA

17. Faculty are empowered to question policy decisions through a well articulated process. SD D N A SA

18. The faculty senate is utilized as a conduit through which faculty participation is solicited. SD D N A SA

19. Institutional procedures involve faculty governance early in the decision making process. SD D N A SA

20. Neutral "consultants" are utilized to mediate faculty-administration dealings. SD D N A SA

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; N=Neutral; A=Agree; or SA=Strongly Agree

Roles of the teaching faculty in the governance process are:

21. Convince the administration that the faculty "voice" is a valuable component in decision making. SD D N A SA

22. Faculty must insist on rights and responsibilities in appropriate governance roles (such as curriculum, graduation requirements, etc.). SD D N A SA

23. Faculty committees should work harder to cooperate with administration. SD D N A SA

24. Faculty should assist in clarifying roles of administrators so that they know they are to administer policy and not impose their own. SD D N A SA

25. Faculty should be more involved in developing specific outcomes for budgetary expenditures. SD D N A SA

Please return to the National Database on Faculty Involvement in Governance, Program in Higher Education Administration, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487.

By Terry O'Banion

Is Teaching and Learning a Priority? Conduct an Audit and Find Out*

For decades community colleges have claimed the sobriquet of "the teaching and learning college" as the clearest expression of their culture and values. But do community colleges really place a priority on teaching and learning? Suggesting that a college's true values are embedded in the written policies and statements, practices, and related behaviors of the institution's stakeholders, the author poses a number of key questions as guidelines for an audit of a college's commitment to teaching and learning.

"THE COMMUNITY college should be the nation's premier teaching institution" (Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988, p. 25)—*but is it?* In the largest survey (HERI, 1991) of its kind ever conducted, 99 percent of the community college faculty responding considered "being a good teacher" an essential or very important professional goal. On the same survey, however, only 8 percent rated "faculty are rewarded for being good teachers" as "very descriptive" of their own institutions.

There is a major dislocation in the culture of higher education when faculty place such high value on good teaching but believe that their institutions place such low value on rewarding it. This disparity is only one example that reveals the unresolved tensions within higher education that make it difficult to explain education to our constituents outside the academy. Former Harvard President Derek Bok contends that "the public has finally come to believe quite strongly that our institutions . . . are not making the education of students a top priority" (1992, p. 15).

Is the community college the "teaching college" as we have claimed for decades and as the Futures Commission indicates we should be? Do we really take the student where she is and "take her to where she wants to go"? Do we place learning first? Community colleges can answer these questions by making a serious audit of their teaching/learning values and climate as reflected in their policies, practices, and related behaviors.

Auditing Teaching and Learning Practices

The teaching and learning climate of an educational institution is the visible product of a particular institutions invisible values. What faculty, administrators, board members, and staff truly believe about students and their abilities to learn and about teachers and their abilities to teach is reflected in the climate of teaching and learning. It is a case of yin and yang in which values influence climate, and climate in turn influences values. The values and climate are made most visible in the written policies and statements,

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practices, and related behaviors of the stakeholders in the institution.

An audit of these policies and statements, practices, and related behaviors is an important first step for leaders who wish to make teaching and learning the highest priority of the community college. The following is an attempt to develop guidelines that can be used to conduct an institutional audit of current teaching and learning policies and practices. The audit should be tailored to the special needs of an institution, but the guidelines are fairly generic and should apply to most any community college that wishes to improve and expand on its current commitment to teaching and learning.

For the audit to be effective it must be related to some larger undertaking such as an accreditation study or institutional renewal project. The questions suggested here can be used as a framework for guiding committees and external evaluators, and they can be used to provoke discussion and examination. In some cases, those leading the audit may want to develop surveys of the questions to gather information from large groups of faculty and students. In all cases, institutions making an audit should select only those questions that pertain to their culture and add other questions that reflect their special needs and interests.

Institutional Policies and Statements

Every community college has a mission statement. In every mission statement there is some reference to ideals of good teaching and to interest in and support of students to ensure learning. Mission statements, however, are not usually living documents that stimulate creative response. At a minimum, they meet legal requirements and are trotted out and sometimes updated for representatives of accrediting associations and institutional committees responsible for launching yet another long-range plan.

For community colleges wishing to make teaching and learning the institution's top priority, the mission statement is a good place to begin. It is likely in need of an update reflecting a special emphasis on teaching and learning as the heart of the educational enterprise. This updating may occur after institutional leaders have prepared more specific institutionwide statements that document values related to teaching and learning.

- Does the mission statement make clearly visible the college's commitment to core values related to teaching and learning?
- Has the college prepared special statements of values, goals, and practices indicating commitments to teaching and learning as a high priority of the institution?
- To what extent does the governing board demonstrate understanding and commitment to good practices in teaching and learning?
- Is the president committed to making teaching and learning an institutional priority? How does he or she express that commitment?
- To what extent have faculty and staff been involved in developing the various institutional statements, and how do they support a continuing climate of commitment to teaching and learning?
- Could outside consultants and visitors recognize the institution's commitment to teaching and learning by observing practice rather than being told about the commitment? Is practice aligned with mission?
- Are the various statements living documents that are used continually to guide leaders and revised to reflect new goals and new practices?

Student Success Policies

Academic policies should ensure student success and reflect values derived from the mission and other institutionwide statements on teaching and learning. These policies are among the most important indices in the institution for auditing how institutional stakeholders really feel about students and their abilities to learn. Unfortunately, many academic policies reflect values and practices designed for a different time, different place, and different students. If community colleges are to provide opportunities for students to be successful, they need to review and analyze current academic policies related to students and revise them according to their value statements to make them student success policies.

- Does the college have a required student assessment program designed to identify specific areas in need of remediation, counseling, or experience prior to undertaking more challenging activities?
- Does the college have a mandatory placement program, developed in tandem with the assessment program, designed to remediate, counsel, or provide experiences that will ensure success in more challenging activities?
- As the most important prelude to success in class, are all students in every term required to explore with a highly competent academic adviser their educational, vocational, and life goals, and their program and course choices to achieve those goals?
- Are new students required to participate in a series of well-designed orientation activities to acquaint them with the values and challenges of a college education, the social responsibilities of educated citizens, the culture and norms of college in general, and this college in particular?
- Has the college made it clear that students must register before the first day of class to ensure the benefits of attendance on the first day and during the first week? In other words, has the college abandoned late registration policies that interfere with sound teaching and learning practices for late registrants, on-time registrants, and faculty?
- Has the college established an early academic alert system designed to initiate special interventions of counseling, remediation, reduced course and workloads, and special support services for students whose assessments indicate a proclivity for failure and for students who show early signs of failure?
- Are students required to attend classes with very few exceptions, and are these exceptions and procedures for their approval carefully spelled out?
- Are exceptions to these student success policies extremely limited, carefully spelled out, and strictly enforced by all college staff?
- Do faculty and staff members who are assigned responsibilities for implementing the student success policies participate in developing and approving the policies?

Curriculum Review and Development

The curriculum is the expression of the collective faculty wisdom regarding what is worth learning. Three hundred years ago what was worth learning in formal schooling was fixed in the *trivium* and *quadrivium*, and every student took the same curriculum. Today the world is a bit more complex, and that is reflected in the comprehensive curriculum of the modern community college, which supports five different curricula in one organization: transfer/liberal arts, vocational/technical education, remedial/developmental studies, general education, and continuing education/community services. Distinct faculty groups serve the transfer and technical curricula, and some of these faculty are also advocates of and participants in the other curricula.

This is a complex arrangement, a bane and a blessing of the community college and one of its distinct characteristics. The arrangement is made more complex since these curricula are not fixed and are, or should be, in a constant state of flux as they are revised to reflect changing social and economic needs. Technical programs must be constantly updated, new programs initiated, and programs no longer relevant deleted to keep up with rapid changes in technology and economic conditions. Transfer programs must be updated to reflect such social changes as an emphasis on multiculturalism and women's studies and new knowledge constantly emerging in the established disciplines. New immigrants and underprepared high school students require curriculum changes in developmental education. Pressure to serve communities in new and deeper ways and to expand services to business and industry call for revisions in the continuing education/community services curriculum. The development of a sound program of general education has been a continuing quest of community colleges for decades.

It is the curriculum in the community college to which faculty apply their best expertise in making teaching and learning an institutional priority. In universities, course content often represents the research interests of faculty or scholarly trends in a discipline. In community colleges, faculty usually

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tailor course content to community and student interests, addressing the needs of heterogeneous populations (Mellander and Robertson, 1992, p. 12). To ensure that the current curricula are designed to best meet the needs of current students and to ensure that they will be constantly updated to reflect changing needs, faculty must be energetic activists in curriculum review and development.

- Does the college have an established process, such as DACUM, to ensure the continuing review and development of the curriculum? Are all curricula in the college on a rotating schedule for review every three to five years, with allowances made for early review in areas of rapid change?
- How many programs and courses have been revised, added, and deleted in the last five years?
- Has the college established a general education program required of all students as recommended by the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges? Is the general education program the usual political compromise of distribution requirements, or is it especially designed with its own internal integrity?
- Is there a well-developed special curriculum for underprepared and ESL students sequentially linked to other appropriate curricula?
- Does the transfer curriculum meet the needs of the majority of transfer students, and does it prepare them to compete on an equal basis at the universities and four-year colleges to which they transfer?
- Does the transfer curriculum articulate efficiently with the developmental studies program and the vocational-technical program so that students can easily access the transfer program?
- Do minority students in the transfer program complete at the same rate as nonminority students?
- Is the vocational-technical program designed to meet community and regional work force needs, and are these programs articulated with training needs and opportunities in the community and region?

Instructional Innovation

A major hallmark of a college dedicated to making teaching and learning its highest priority is the extent to which faculty search out and create innovations in instructional processes. Some colleges have developed a climate in which innovation in general is highly prized as a characteristic of institutional culture. Such climates often have their genesis in the visions of innovative presidents, but when a critical core of faculty engage in innovation they can survive changes in presidents and maintain an innovative spirit that undergirds teaching and learning effectiveness.

Sadly, some colleges that were highly innovative in the 60s and 70s have lost that innovative spirit. In some cases, faculty in these institutions are still riding on past reputations and reject new ideas under the assumption that they have already tried everything. Constrained by limited travel funds and a general malaise that pervades many community colleges in difficult economic times, colleges and their faculties turn inward and disconnect from the community of innovators that show up regularly at the annual conferences of the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development; the National Council for Staff, Program, and Organizational Development; and the League for Innovation.

Once lost, it takes considerable thought and a great deal of action to renew a college's innovative spirit. A first step is to audit current instructional innovations and related activities. When this is part of an institution-wide audit regarding effective teaching and learning policies and practices, there is great potential for a renaissance of instructional innovation.

- How many and which faculty are currently experimenting with instructional innovations they have borrowed or designed?
- Is there a program or an office that initiates and encourages instructional innovation at the college? If so, are faculty connected and responsive?
- Does the college have formal policies and programs of incentives, rewards, and recognition to stimulate instructional innovation?

- How many faculty members are experimenting with the following current instructional innovations:
    - Classroom assessment
    - Learning communities
    - Electronic journals and forums
    - Instructional skills programs
    - Service learning
    - Multimedia and interactive media
    - TQM in the classroom

Information Technology

The use of information technology in improving teaching and learning could be subsumed under the section on instructional innovation, except that it is becoming so pervasive and has so much potential for creating change that it is best treated separately. There are a number of leaders, such as EDUCOM President Robert Heterick, who believe that technology is "the primary vehicle by which institutions of higher education are going to reengineer the teaching-and-learning process" (DeLoughry, 1992, p. A17).

Community colleges are rapidly expanding their use of the computer to improve teaching and learning. Whereas in universities computers are used primarily by professors for research and writing, in community colleges computers are used primarily by students to increase and expand learning. And community college faculty members are the driving force behind the use of computers by students as they adapt new information technology to extend and expand their own teaching.

When computers first appeared in community colleges, they were used almost exclusively for administrative purposes: registration, financial management, personnel, data collection, etc. Most community colleges now have information technology systems in place for managing their administrative functions, and in the last decade creative faculty have used computers in a variety of ways to improve teaching and learning.

- Has the college made a distinction between administrative and instructional computing? Has the college provided resources and appropriate organizational support to ensure the expansion of instructional computing?
- Is there a long-range scheme for developing, planning, managing, and updating information technology to support effective teaching and learning?
- Does the college participate in national and international networks for users of information technology and regularly support faculty participation in conferences and workshops on information technology?
- Does the college evaluate the effectiveness of information technology in improving teaching and learning compared to other instructional approaches?
- Is the college experimenting with instructional programs using information technology that will increase teaching productivity?
- To what extent is information technology used to build community among administrators, faculty, and students?

Faculty Selection and Development

The faculty make the college. They are the conjunction that connects the teaching *and* learning processes. In institutions that wish to make teaching and learning the highest priority, most activities focus on the faculty in terms of trying to influence them or in terms of serving their needs. This observation is not to be misconstrued in terms of meeting faculty needs identified by unions and other special groups, although these needs are quite often related to improving teaching and learning even when not couched within that framework.

The overarching goal of the community college—the goal that transcends power conflicts, special interests, and key personalities—is to provide opportunities for students to succeed. And that goal is impossible to achieve without the full support and involvement of the faculty—a simple truth but one sometimes lost in the complex issues of the day. Faculty are too often seen as the enemy or as sluggards by some trustees, presidents, and administrators. Some administrators and trustees seem to care more about the maintenance of buildings than they do about faculty members.

Leaders who understand the key role of faculty in making the institution work—that is, in fully realizing the changes possible at an institution totally dedicated to teaching and learning as its highest priority—will make the selection, development, and evaluation of faculty an ongoing and strongly supported activity throughout the institution. In addition, there will be systems of reward and recognition in place that make the climate of the college attractive and challenging. Not since the 1960s have college leaders had a better opportunity to revitalize the faculty as the key factor in making teaching and learning the heart of the educational enterprise. Over half of the faculty in community colleges are currently in the process of retiring. The faculty hired in the next five years will determine the real nature of community colleges for decades to come. In this brief window of opportunity, visionary leaders must move quickly and carefully to develop value statements and processes for selecting, evaluating, developing, and rewarding the faculty who will determine whether a college will become an institution easily recognized as being dedicated to teaching and learning.

- Has the college assessed the retirement patterns of current faculty over the next ten years and determined replacement needs both in number and in kind?
- Has the college developed a statement of values regarding teaching and learning and derived characteristics of replacement teachers needed to achieve these values? Is there a clearly determined procedure for selecting new faculty that involves demonstrated effectiveness in teaching and ensures a cadre of teachers who will implement the values in the teaching and learning statement?
- Has the college created a mandatory staff development program for these new faculty—and for continuing faculty and part-time faculty as well—that will assist them in achieving personal and professional goals derived from the values statement on teaching and learning and the desirable characteristics of teachers? Is the staff development program coordinated by a highly qualified staff member on a continuing basis and integrated into the real-life activities of the college?
- Does the faculty evaluation system reflect the statement on values and characteristics of teachers and provide opportunities for faculty to take advantage of perspectives on their work from colleagues, supervisors, and students? Does the self-evaluation process provide opportunities to organize portfolios and other nontraditional resources for demonstrating effective teaching and improved student learning? Is assistance provided to teachers from the staff development program in preparing evaluations and in developing new competencies or upgrading skills?
- Has the college established a culture in which the most effective teachers are recognized and rewarded in ways appropriate to their achievement and that ensures respect and a sense of fair play from those not recognized and rewarded? Is good teaching genuinely celebrated at the college?
- Has the development of statements and systems regarding selecting, developing, evaluating, and rewarding faculty involved all institutional stakeholders to the point that they feel ownership of the products?

Institutional Effectiveness

All things considered, if an institution and its consultants could give highly positive responses to most of the questions framed here for an audit of teaching and learning, such a college would be a model of institutional effectiveness. The core indices for measuring overall institutional effectiveness are related to teaching and learning activities. Certainly other factors, such as facilities, governance structures, community relationships, alliances with public schools and universities, and financial arrangements, need to be considered, but these factors, for the most part, are the peripheral structures that support teaching and learning.

The core indices for measuring overall institutional effectiveness related to teaching and learning are illuminated in the question, "Are the students at this college learning what they came to learn and what the faculty feel they need to learn, and is the community satisfied with the outcome?" An audit based on the following questions will provide more specific information regarding answers to this key question.

- Have the retention rates increased at the college because of activities initiated in making teaching and learning one of the highest priorities of the institution? Are stakeholders satisfied with these improved retention rates as the best students can achieve?

- Have grade point averages, course success rates, and program completion rates increased at the college because of activities initiated in making teaching and learning one of the highest priorities of the institution? Are stakeholders satisfied with these improved averages and rates?
- Do students express more satisfaction in a variety of areas with their experiences at the college, and are they more involved at the college because of activities initiated in making teaching and learning one of the highest priorities of the institution?
- Do faculty, staff, and administrators express more satisfaction in a variety of areas with their experiences at the college, and are they more involved in the college because of activities initiated in making teaching and learning one of the highest priorities of the institution?
- Does the community express more satisfaction with the college because of activities initiated in making teaching and learning one of the highest priorities of the institution?

Although measures are difficult to determine for the questions related to satisfaction, one can infer satisfaction if most of the other questions throughout the audit can be answered positively. If that holds true, satisfaction on the part of students, faculty, and the community is likely to be evident in a number of ways: laudatory editorials in the student and community newspapers; more cordial contract negotiations; more volunteered time; greater commitment to experimentation; increased interaction between students and faculty and among faculty; and more referendums passed by the community in support of the college. These measures of satisfaction may appear idealistic, but they suggest a vision worth pursuing and not impossible to achieve.

Conclusion

Community colleges that conduct this audit may be surprised at how well they perform. There are many values shared by community college faculty that lay the groundwork for significant practices in teaching and learning. In the HERI study cited earlier, 82 percent of community college faculty agreed strongly or somewhat that "faculty are committed to the welfare of the institution." In terms of "overall job satisfaction" 74 percent indicated a satisfactory or very satisfactory rating. Community college faculty like working in the community college environment, and they are committed to the community college. When these faculty are matched with administrators who share the same values, teaching and learning can become a priority, and these extraordinary institutions can lay proper claim to being the "nation's premier teaching institutions."

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Terry O'Banion is the Executive Director of The League of Innovation in the Community College in Mission Viejo, CA 92961.

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By Edmund L. Prater & Michael Alan Smith

On Being a Pathfinder on the Information Superhighway: Or How to Lead Your Students a Little Way into the Electronic Frontier

E-mail and electronic posting can enhance instruction in the class and be effective aids to class administration. As businesses make more use of these tools, it is important that students leave school prepared and comfortable using them. Using examples from our experiences, we discuss some ways in which using e-mail and electronic posting can enhance the class and ease the burden of class administration. We also list some practical issues and problems to be dealt with in the course of managing a class that uses e-mail and electronic posting.

"The object of education is to prepare the young to educate themselves throughout their lives."

Robert Maynard Hutchins

PICK UP ANY newspaper or newsmagazine today and there will be a discussion of how information technology is affecting our lives. For example, the U.S. House of Representatives recently has made available online the text of bills pending in Congress—information that has long been available but, never before, so easily. The use of electronic media in education has received an increasing amount of attention in recent years. *Business Week* (Mecklenburger, 1990) reports that electronic mail and bulletin boards help unite teachers and share resources. Also, distance education projects using e-mail are in progress in many locations including Russia (Gransden, 1994), Alaska (Lytle, 1994), and the United States and other countries (Shapiro & Hughes, 1992).

To enhance instruction in our classes and to better prepare our students for the world of business, we have undertaken to introduce e-mail and electronic posting of class information in our courses. Several studies have observed desirable results in classes in which e-mail is used. Hall (1993) reports that e-mail proved a handy and user-friendly way to increase class participation by encouraging shy students to share their ideas with their teacher and classmates. Students also can use e-mail to review and discuss ideas more thoroughly than was done in class. Lytle (1994) has students submit homework via e-mail. Marcus (1996) proposes that the use of e-mail may give students an incentive to improve their writing skills since they know that their compositions may be read by others across the country and the world. Businesses are also making more use of these tools. Perry (1992) discusses how e-mail is transforming the workplace by letting engineers pass design problems across time zones, breaking

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down hierarchies by making upper managers more accessible and speeding up the pace of research.

Despite the evidence that use of e-mail can enhance instruction and that the skills are important to the business world, instructors have few incentives to use the tools. If anything, the effort to implement electronic communication in the class discourages would-be improvers. Some of this is due to fear of the unknown. Others may believe that their students (being of the MTV-and-Nintendo generation) must already use this technology. They may be surprised that many students have not used computers extensively and are as wary of them as their teachers are. By introducing them to e-mail, instructors give their students skills that they will likely use when they graduate.

Our Objectives

We want students to leave our classes confident that they can use computers to solve problems. Although the electronic tools available are becoming easier to use, it remains true that only "practice makes perfect." However, most undergraduates try to pass evaluations of their computer skills by "cramming" at the last minute instead of by learning through doing. We set out to encourage them to practice rather than to cram by making it very difficult to pass the courses without logging on to the computer system several times a week. Thus the students' interest in passing the course coincides with the instructor's interest in making students practice their computer skills.

Michael teaches a sophomore-level introductory course in information technology. The course is required for management students and is an elective for several other majors in other schools within the institute. Most students come into the class with some experience with computers. A few "whiz kids" and a few novices enroll as well. The knowledge content of the course falls into both theory and skills areas. The theory area includes how computers work, how software is designed and written, and an overview of issues having to do with the management of information technology (IT). The skills areas include the use of on-line library research tools, e-mail, Gopher (a program that makes it easier to find text based information on the Internet), the World Wide Web (WWW or, simply, "the Web" - another tool for finding multi-media information on the Internet), a spreadsheet, and a database package. Class size is usually between 50 and 60 students. Two sections are offered each quarter, each taught by a different instructor, except during the Summer when only one section is offered.

Edmund teaches a junior-level course on the management of IT that is the postrequisite of Michael's course. It is required for management students and is an elective for several other majors. In theory, all of Edmund's students have hands-on experience with computers but there are always some students who do not. The course emphasizes the business applications of IT, both with skills (using the Web and Gopher) and through cases. Emphasis is placed on business writing and analysis as well as instruction on specific IT concepts and technologies. Class size is usually between 40 and 50 students. Three sections are offered each quarter, each taught by a different instructor, except during the Summer when only one section is offered.

Implementation

Considering others' research into the use of e-mail, we expected that some type of structure would be needed to effectively use it. Barr (1994) points out the need for a reliable system and for purpose and structure in designing the program. Updegrove (1991) discusses the international infrastructure that supports the use of e-mail in academia and lists points of ethics and etiquette that e-mail users should keep in mind. Romiszowski & De Hass (1989) discusses computer mediated communication (CMC) in general and the need for control and structure when CMC is used in an instructional environment. Hunter (1992) finds that office workers experiences with computers and emotional attitudes towards learning a new communication skill deeply influenced their learning experience and usage of e-mail. He finds that the key success factors are ease of learning and the existence of benefits to using the system. We believe that his findings apply to students as well as office workers.

In accord with this research, we developed and implemented the following program. Some of these measures were tried in one class and some in both. To simplify the presentation, here we treat the two classes as one.

- On the first day of class, each student receives one page of instructions, which includes:

1. A description of how to log onto the computer system.
2. Where to go for help in logging on the computer and general questions (usually a Computer Center Support Help Desk).
3. How to print out an on-line set of directions for using e-mail.
4. The instructor's e-mail address.
5. Where to find on-line postings of the class syllabus and schedule and how to view them on-line or print them out.
6. Where to find the announcement file for class messages. This file includes announcements, reminders, and corrections of and addenda to material presented in readings and lectures.

- Early in the term, we provide a brief overview of how to use e-mail. This is to help reluctant students get over their initial fear and to help all students become more comfortable with the system. (Hall, 1993) We give the students a small, straightforward e-mail assignment, such as sending an e-mail message to the instructor on what they hope to learn from the class, to force them to use the system. We also assign an on-line citation search on a subject of their choice and ask them to e-mail the results to the instructor. This makes sure that the students can use our library facilities and helps us get to know our students.
- We leverage off the library's efforts by posting the times during which the library offers courses on its electronic research tools or by inviting the library staff to provide a one hour overview of their on-line capabilities.
- We post all class materials on-line. This includes syllabi, schedules, homework assignments, solutions and grades. No hardcopies of these materials are given out. Since the schedule and homework assignments are of interest to most students, they see a benefit to using the system.
- All official communication is done via e-mail. Agreements made between the instructor and a student during class are not binding until the instructor receives an e-mail note from the student of what was said.
- We quit keeping regular office hours. If e-mail cannot convey the nature of the issue, a meeting between the instructor and student is set up — all arrangements being made via e-mail.

What We Have Observed Along the Way

Using electronic communications in class has definitely helped us reach our goals. In this section, we recount some lessons we learned: both pleasant and unpleasant.

- Access to the system must be convenient for all students. This issue was also noted by Hall (1993). Fortunately, at our school, all students have access to e-mail and information on-line through their student computer accounts.

We agree with Hunter (1992), that the user-friendliness of the system is important. We observed that:

- The availability of an easy-to-learn text editor for composing messages removes a great barrier to e-mail use. The default text editor of our e-mail system, which is called 'vi', has many useful functions but is difficult to learn. This distracts students from our goal of having them use the technology. We advise the students to change their default text editor to an alternative program, called 'pico'. Pico has fewer functions than 'vi' but is much easier to learn. Students who already know another text editor or wish to learn one are free to do so.
- Good documentation is essential. Some students come into our classes having used e-mail rarely, if at all, and with little knowledge of the Unix commands necessary for using the computer system. Students quickly grow frustrated and petulant when they cannot figure out how to accomplish a task. Unable to find a suitable e-mail manual, Michael simple wrote his own and placed it in a postscript file where students

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> can print it out. This manual has also proven useful to grad students and some faculty.

Hunter (1992) also pointed out that people using the system must understand the advantages of using it.

- Providing all class documentation, test grades, and announcements on-line encourages the students to use their electronic tools extensively. However, this requires discipline on the instructor's part, for the reintroduction of paper documents leads students to expect that eventually, they will always have recourse to them.
- We provide universal, timely access to information about events or changes in the class, such as cancellations, homework extensions, and quiz reminders, by maintaining an announcement file. Students are encouraged to check this file every day. New postings are added to the beginning of the file so that the latest announcements always appear first. This makes the system easier to use. Older announcements are not deleted, however, and students can always review them by reading subsequent pages in the file.
- E-mail facilitates quick responses to questions. Since students may send messages whenever they are at a terminal and the instructor may review them whenever it is convenient, it is unnecessary that both parties be free at the same time. Responses can also be thought out and composed. We find that, in most cases, response within a few days is acceptable. The students appreciate this facility since they have access to the instructor even though their schedules often conflict with regular office houres. Using e-mail in this manner gives both students and instructors the maximum amount of flexibility.
- E-mail is useful in organizing group work. Just as it helps students and instructors communicate, e-mail allows students to exchange information regardless of schedules. E-mail can also be used to monitor group participation. For example, the instructor can create groups in the class, designating one member of each the leader, and charge each leader with creating the first draft of a written group report. Other group members are responsible for criticizing the draft and suggesting improvements. The first and subsequent drafts are due at given dates and times. By requiring that all drafts and critiques be passed among group members *and the instructor* via e-mail, the instructor can use the date and time stamp on each message to make sure that work is being turned in on time. If students complain that other group members are not doing their share of the work, the electronic record provides the means to find out.

We found that the use of e-mail and electronic posting can help us administer our classes.

- Using electronic posting cuts down on the time spent in "administrivia" in several ways. It reduces the time required to make and distributing paper copies. This also eliminates the competition for time on the copy machines. Electronic postings can be made from any terminal through which the computer system can be accessed, even from home. Also, the computer system often proves more reliable than the copiers. All of these things simplify the dissemination of information to the class.
- E-mail also helps protect the students from carelessness on the part of the instructor. Having students send copies of their assignments to themselves at the same time they e-mail their work to the instructor produces a time stamped "receipt" for their work. If the assignment is misplaced, the student always can produce their own copy of the message, exactly as it was first sent.

We have received several comments from former students regarding the use of e-mail and electronic posting in our classes, none of them negative. The following statement is typical: "Although you were always available for all students after class, and at your office hours, I am positive that many of us appreciated the e-mail system even more. The fact is that, from personal experience, 99% of my questions required a simple 'Yes' or 'No' answer, and to have set an appointment during your office hours could have set me back 2 days or I would have had to wait until the next class with the same time loss. On many occasions my question indicated that maybe the rest of the class could have been wonder-ing about the same thing, and by notifying you, via e-mail, the same morning or the night before, you were prepared, and that was beneficial to you as well as to the class. In any case the mail system was and will always be, I believe, an excellent communication system that cuts down on time that otherwise is wasted when waiting for office hours."

Future Work

We continue to experiment. We would like to use newsgroups to replace the simple posting of text files on-line. This would enable us to create a dialog on-line between our students and us as well as among the students. The main obstacle here is ease of learning. We have not yet located a manual on the readnews program suitable for beginners.

We would like to make more use of the World Wide Web. Michael has begun posting copies of everything that is normally available on-line in a Web page built specifically for his class. Using programs such as Netscape and Mosaic, students can access not only course information but scanned examples of correct homework assignments. The main obstacle preventing total conversion to the Web page is that some of the systems available in the public areas on campus are not powerful enough to present Web pages fast enough to hold students' interest. Also, access to Web pages is not yet easily available through dial-in lines.

Conclusion

We have found that using electronic tools such as e-mail and posting class information on-line has improved our class administration. This has been done by:

- Allowing us to keep records of all correspondence.
- Helping us cut down on our dependence on paper and the copying machine.

We also believe that we have enhanced our instruction by:

- Giving us another channel with which to communicate with our students.
- Increasing our responsiveness while increasing our flexibility.

We are satisfied that our students leave our classes more confident in their ability to use computers. We have learned by repeated contact with former students that:

- Students have continued to use e-mail and on-line tools after leaving our classes.
- Students have actually used the techniques taught in our classes in their jobs and in entrepreneurial endeavors.

We hope that our insights prove helpful as you juggle everything an instructor must. We also hope that they help you to be a better educator. This is one of the great objectives of academia.

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The authors also wish to state that order of the authors was determined by flipping a coin—it seemed the democratic thing to do.

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Edmund L. Prater is from the Georgia Institute of Technology, Georgia, gt0664@prism.gatech.edu. **Michael Alan Smith** is also from the Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, gt0462a@prism.gatech.edu.

By Dr. Hans A. Andrews, Dr. John Erwin, & Mr. James Barr

Faculty Evaluation: Number One Quality Control in TQM

The myth that tenured faculty cannot be fired is widespread in American society. Classroom evaluation is a key element in proving the myth wrong as institutions move into TQM and CQI management techniques. Teachers support meaningful evaluation with appropriate outcomes. One College's experience in making such improvements is highlighted.

THE *NUMBER ONE MYTH* in American education today is that *you cannot fire a tenured teacher*. Tenure is considered in many places as a guarantee of a job for life. Nisbet (1973) found that tenure was, indeed, such a sanctuary for most teachers. He found very few teachers being dismissed from tenured positions. Many institutions he reviewed had never removed a faculty member. He concluded:

> To argue that tenure is not a refuge for the lazy, incompetent and delinquent, that "with cause shown" such individuals may be dismissed, hardly carries conviction when, as the record makes plain, tenure is such a refuge" (p. 47).

In the mid-1960's, the leaders of the nation's two largest teacher unions, the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), both suggested that up to 10% of the teachers in American schools may not be doing the job expected for quality teaching. Albert Shanker of the AFT further stated that it was the fault of the supervisor's ineptitude rather than teacher contracts that allows for poor teachers to remain in the classrooms of American schools (Shanker, 1985).

The Need for Evaluation

How much impact does an excellent teacher make upon an institution? One excellent teacher may have up to 160-175 students in one semester or close to 350 in one year. If a college has 10 such outstanding faculty members the impact of such teaching could affect up to 3,500 students in one year. Every poor teacher has the same impact. How many schools can afford to allow such shoddy work as a projection of their image to the community they serve?

Classroom evaluation of instruction is a key element in obtaining and maintaining quality in classroom instruction. It is important, however, that the instructional administrative professionals be involved. Each teacher in an institution will be given professional feedback from in-classroom visitations. This needs to be both verbal and in writing. Such feedback will provide the backbone for quality improvements. It provides the incentive for those top teachers to receive the recognition necessary to continue outstanding contributions to students and the institution. It provides incentive for those teachers who might otherwise slack off if they feel that quality instruction is not too important to the administration or governing board. It also provides incentive to those slackers or persons willing to do less than quality classroom instruction. Such incentive should be developed through well thought out discussion and written reports which clearly list those areas of teaching and other job responsibilities that need to be improved and/or remediated.

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Marzano and Andrews (1983-84) referred to such a comprehensive evaluation by administrators as "working both ends of the curve." This meant the normal distribution of teaching which may range from exceptional to incompetent. The 90% or more of faculty who are doing the exceptional to highly satisfactory job of teaching will thrive from positive feedback. Most will also accept some suggestions for improvement.

There is a generally accepted perception that good teachers do not support the need for evaluation. A study of faculty leaders in a 19-state area of the North Central Association territory (Licata and Andrews, 1990) disputes this notion. Community college faculty leaders supported the need for post-tenure evaluation if it is carried out in a professional manner. The majority did not feel evaluation was being carried out effectively in their colleges. They indicated there were no rewards for the good teachers nor were there consequences for the "slouchers." The general feeling was that the administration only provided 'lip service' to quality improvements.

The area of professional feedback is where institutions usually break down in providing quality to their evaluation systems. Student "evaluation forms" at the end of a semester do not provide sufficient feedback to force improvements. They do not provide for remediation, follow-up or any verbal discussion. Students remain anonymous and have no role in a legal sense to improve teaching. Anonymous students do not provide an institution with a legal base to go to a board of trustees, arbitrator, or court to remove a poor instructor.

Continuous Quality Improvement and Evaluation in Higher Education

Continuous Quality Improvement (C.Q.I.) or Total Quality Management (T.Q.M.) constitutes a recent major shift in academic administrative circles in their quest for improving quality. The concept of CQI and TQM was developed to assist the automotive and other manufacturing industries to improve upon the products they were designing and producing until there were no defects. In short, 90% or 95% quality is not satisfactory in producing a competitive car in the world markets today. The TQM philosophy says that only 100% quality will be acceptable. Attempting to apply these same principles to teachers in classrooms should produce the same result. In short, why would governing boards and administrators accept 90% or 95% of faculty doing a good job while allowing 5% to 10% of the teachers to continue working at an unsatisfactory level?

The intervention of classes being evaluated by supervisory administrators should move poor instruction out of the classroom over a period of time. It is a well recognized legal fact that tenured faculty need to be made aware of their deficiencies in their work and be given adequate remediation time to make the suggested improvements.

Non-tenured faculty who are inadequate in their teaching also need such an appraisal, time for improvement, and follow-up evaluation to make sure such improvements are made. This is where the proposed evaluation system can be *adapted* and *applied* to the concept of 100% quality issue. It should be obvious to most persons using CQI or TQM concepts that improving an individual teacher may be much more complicated than making an improvement on a metal part of an automobile. A teacher can, however, be significantly improved. In such cases where a teacher cannot or refuses to make quality improvements the administration and governing board can move toward a termination of that individual. The search for a high quality teaching replacement will then improve those classrooms if such a person is hired.

The concept of 'continuous' improvement in an evaluation system is not a one time visit to a classroom. It refers to a system that provides for occasional quality checks, feedback, and suggestions for improvement.

Moving away from an hierarchical and authoritarian model to a team concept of management in higher education has proven beneficial in such areas as financial aid, admissions and registration, and clerical staff performance. Continuous Quality Improvement has come under some criticism by Seymour (1991) and Bosner (1992) for not applying directly to the curricular and instructional arenas. They did not find the core processes of teaching and learning to have been adequately addressed nor was evaluation of instructional performance measured to ensure quality in the college classroom.

One of the most controversial propositions of the CQI philosophy is W. Edwards Deming's belief that performance appraisal or evaluation should be abolished throughout the entire organization because it demolishes teamwork and enforces a ranking system (Gabor, 1990). Yet, at the center of most universities and colleges is a mission which accents quality teaching. The only way to achieve 100% quality instruction is through support, observation, and criteria for excellence in the classroom. In short, an evaluation system is required.

A major proponent of TQM in higher education, Stanley Spanbauer advocates that this management philosophy will increase placement rates, result in fewer dropouts, increase enrollments, increase employee satisfaction. maintain greater accountability, establish better customer service, and reduce the college's costs (Spanbauer, 1992). Missing in this positive equation is the role of faculty evaluation for better classroom instruction.

Pioneering Colleges

The pioneering colleges in the TQM movement have *not* moved into the academic arena with TQM practices. Instead, attention has been given to the following (Seymour, 1991):

1. registration procedures
2. mail distribution
3. physical maintenance
4. payroll
5. printing / copy services

What more natural place for quality improvement than in the development of teachers, and yet the advocates and researchers on TQM in higher education have found there to be a neglect of the classroom in making such improvements (Fisher, 1993).

The push to continually improve one's self as a teacher and the dedication and commitment necessary to create a quality classroom experience for students would seem to lead education to TQM's doorway. Why, then, hasn't there been a broad adoption of TQM principles to faculty evaluation at colleges and universities across the country? The answer to this question may be found in the fact that some college professors are not performing at acceptable levels in the classroom. TQM and CQI are based upon the assumption that everyone is part of the team and that all members will be equally responsible for their performance of responsibilities, hence no performance appraisal is necessary since all people are striving for the best (Nagy, 1993).

This assumption leaves many educators who adhere to CQI principles dumbfounded as to how to respond to the incompetent teacher. The adoption of a legally defensible evaluation system is essential to the commitment to quality in the classroom as ineffective teachers are supported to improve through remediation, or removed as a result of their own instructional inadequacies (Seymour, 1993).

Quality Control and TQM - A Case Study

Governing boards and instructional leaders know the importance of quality in the classroom. The focus is on the teacher to provide that quality. Determining quality in the classroom begins with a good teacher evaluation process that includes an assessment of teachers' performance in the classroom and their contributions to student learning. It should provide an assessment of strengths and weaknesses and if necessary a prescription and notice to improve when weaknesses are determined.

Occasionally a marginally or poorly performing teacher will not improve and it may be necessary for the college Board to discharge the teacher. At that point it is of the utmost importance that the evaluation system used be legally defensible since most discharges progress through a due process which may include arbitration, and/or the courts.

The need for a legally defensible evaluation system became quite apparent at Bay de Noc Community College. The college attempted to discharge a poorly performing teacher. The information used by the administration to support its recommendation of discharge to the Board included numerous student complaints, lack of student learning, poor student evaluations, decreasing program enrollments, and disgruntlement of colleagues working in the same department. Sporadic administrative evaluations were done but were inconsistently conducted and did not provide recommendations for improvement.

The teacher was notified that his employment was being terminated. The teacher, in accordance with due process provisions in the faculty contract, requested a hearing with the Board of Trustees. The hearing concluded with the Board rejecting the recommendation of the administration and allowed the teacher to continue his employment with the college.

The crux of the Board's decision was not a matter of lack of faith in the administration's recommendation, but rather, the information compiled was not legally defensible.

Soon after the Board's decision, a committee of faculty began the work of developing a new faculty evaluation process. The committee was representative of the six academic divisions. Weekly meetings were held over a three- or four-month period. The committee was chaired by the Dean of Instruction and conducted itself as a Quality Circle. At the conclusion of its work the committee accomplished the following:

1. Developed a policy of faculty development appraisal;
2. Agreed to procedures as to how performance appraisal is to be done;
3. Provided an understanding of the Board of Trustees right to manage the institution and an affirmation of the faculty's responsibility to quality instruction;
4. Arrived at a listing of characteristics of good teaching that are observable and measurable;
5. Agreed to activities associated with classroom and activities outside of the classroom that faculty should be responsible for carrying out.

At the conclusion of the faculty committee's work a faculty forum was held to explain the process. After the forum the process was implemented immediately. The faculty member that the college attempted to discharge earlier in the year,and who was allowed to remain on the faculty,was evaluated using the newly adopted evaluation process as were all other faculty members at the institution. After the evaluation of the faculty member in question was completed and sufficient time allowed for remediation of stated deficiencies, the administration renewed its recommendation to the Board that the faculty member be discharged. After the due process hearing conducted by the Board, with legally defensible material now being presented by the administration, the faculty member was dismissed.

The result of the work that the institution accomplished in the improvement of its evaluation system was felt throughout the college. It has led to the following outcomes for the college:

1. The Board of Trustees began seeing the quality of instruction through effective teaching and learning support;
2. Faculty morale, not only in the academic divisions, but throughout the college improved. Faculty began seeing the process of faculty evaluation to be fair, helpful, and necessary;
3. Every evaluation where deficiencies were noted provided a "notice to remedy." The remediation process has helped a number of teachers make improvements in their teaching;
4. Since the overhaul of the evaluation process faculty groups have become more supportive of getting rid of poor teachers;
5. Dismissal proceedings are costly but considered important if poor instruction does not improve once it has been documented;

It has become a commonly held belief at Bay de Noc Community College that there is no substitute for a well-developed, legally defensible, evaluation process as the college pursues issues of quality improvements.

Summary

The movement into Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI) or Total Quality Management (TQM) has a long way to go in most of the two-year colleges that have professed to be moving into quality improvements. Research to date has found that most institutions have worked on improvements everywhere in the institution but in the classroom.

The negative impact of each poor teacher in a community college is significant when the number of persons they affect is added up. Leaving several such poor instructors in an institution leaves lasting impressions on a large number of the student body.

Including faculty in making major quality revisions in the evaluation of faculty process led the one college presented above to develop an acceptable, legally defensible, system of evaluation. The successful movement of CQI or TQM by the nation's community colleges must place effective faculty evaluation at the front of whatever improvements they desire.

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Dr. Hans A. Andrews is Dean of Instruction at Illinois Valley Community College. He has published three books on faculty evaluation. *Teachers CAN Be Fired: The Quest for Quality,* 1995; *Evaluating for Excellence,* 1985; and *Merit in Education,* 1987. **Dr. John Erwin** is Dean of Instruction at Marshalltown Community College in Marshalltown, Iowa. **Mr. James Barr** is Executive Dean of Instruction at Bay de Noc Community College in Escanaba, Michigan.

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TQM, Hiring Right, Appraisals, and Part-Time Faculty

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

TQM

Total Quality in Higher Education **by Ralph G. Lewis and Douglas H. Smith; Delray Beach, FL: St. Lucie Press, 1994 330 pp**

Reviewed by Richard D. Sagor

Ralph Lewis and Douglas Smith have dealt themselves a most challenging task in their book, *Total Quality in Higher Education.* Skeptics might even be inclined to find the title an oxymoron. It is not that the TQM philosophy fails to have relevance to colleges and universities, but making TQM a reality in the organizational culture of most higher education institutions, is at the very least, an uphill battle. That having been said, I feel this book is a valuable contribution to the field on several counts. Before I offer support for that conclusion I would like to review the book's structure and contents.

Contents

The book begins with an author's preface and an introductory chapter, "Why Total Quality?" where Lewis and Smith clearly acknowledge the very rough road ahead for those who wish to move the "Total Quality" paradigm into colleges and universities.

The next two chapters, "Overview of Total Quality" and "The House of Quality", while not specifically addressing implementation issues for higher education environments, do provide a comprehensive historical review of the development of the TQM management theory. These chapters also present the theoretical rationale for the "House of Quality" which is the organizing structure for each of the books in this series. The authors contend these four components: the roof, pillars, foundation and cornerstones work together to build a total quality institution. The following four chapters are the heart of the book presenting a complete discussion of each of the four pillars (customer satisfaction, continuous improvement, speaking with facts, respect for people), with applications for the higher education environment. Particularly useful is the inclusion of "case study" illustrations drawn from Oregon State University (an institution which the authors believe is an exemplar of the implementation of TQM principles).

Each chapter ends with a set of particularly useful abstracts and articles chosen to deepen the reader's understanding of the role of TQM in higher education.

Cautions, Concerns, and Commendations

Cautions

As the authors point out there are certain pre-conditions for any organization to succeed with TQM. Unfortunately, in many colleges and universitates, these pre-requisites will be found lacking.

For example, having strong, long-term leadership committed to seeing such a project through, often isn't present. Even in the example lauded by the authors (Oregon State University), the University President who was in office during the incitation of TQM left prior to the program's full implementation (projected to be 5 years). The very political, financial, and market forces which the authors identify as reasons for higher educators to pursue *Total Quality*, also pressures

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higher education administrators to seek out quick fixes and discourages them from pursuing long term and systematic changes in organizational behavior.

It is not just that universities are populated by folks with values that are challenged by the TQM process, but our colleges and universities have evolved organizational structures and deep patterns of behavior that support those values, for example:

Promotion and Tenure Practices

As tenure constitutes the initiation ritual or "induction process" for most faculty of the academy, universities find themselves populated by the very folks who have achieved success through a process of competitive ranking and sorting; a process that runs counter to one of Deming's cardinal 14 points. Other educators who might have been inclined to favor values such as teamwork, systemic change, and customer satisfaction, are likely the ones to have been weeded out of the system. I question whether implementation of TQM has ever been accomplished in an environment where a time honored system of rewards and sanctions runs so counter to the TQM philosophy.

Governance

Most university governance structures were developed to maintain stability rather than to become forces for change. This isn't totally bad, nor were these structures intended to do harm. The world of knowledge must be protected from capricious political action (be it from legislators or donors) likewise, campuses must stay secure as forums for the free exchange of what may (at times) be politically incorrect ideas. For these reasons, a governance system aimed at protecting autonomy, makes sense. Nevertheless, in a world where faculty senates often exist to (among other things) protect faculty members from the university's leadership, and in places where decisions on promotion and tenure are based more upon meeting the standards of one's "senior" colleagues, rather than institutional goals, then the likelihood of the sort of visionary leadership needed to foster organizational commitment to continuous improvement (e.g. systemic change) is unlikely to emerge.

Concerns

While the authors make a sound case for TQM in Higher Education and offer an impressive list of 220 institutions currently in self-professed implementation of the "Total Quality" approach, empirical data on TQM's successful application to higher education is still rare. The one case study presented, Oregon State University, was chosen because it has, "perhaps the best record of total quality implementation in a still sparse area of published examples in higher education". What makes this assertion doubly troubling is that Lewis and Smith argue that the primary purpose of Higher Education is providing instruction to students (although some may find this an arguable premise). Yet, at OSU the only example the authors could provide of the use of TQM with an instructional issue was the experience of a single professor in examining the impact of his teaching with a single class. Apparently, using TQM to produce higher quality instruction for the customers (students) of a university education, is a challenge not yet meaningfully attempted, even on campuses which are offered as exemplars.

This could be because of another serious problem in translating TQM to a university setting. One of the strengths of a land-grant research university like OSU, is the universe of clients it serves. At the same time that the OSU faculty is being asked to provide outstanding instructional experiences for students, they are being asked to provide service (through their extension service to farmers and other practitioners), to conduct inquiries into the basic sciences (which may or may not have practical relevance for decades to come) and provide entertainment for the boosters of its athletic teams.

As the authors point out, no set of principles are more sacred in TQM then staying close to the customer, providing customer service, and continuously improving the quality of the services which are offered the customer. There is a reason the term used in the literature is the singular "customer" not the plural "customers". This is not mere semantics, It is regularly claimed that identifying a limited set of customers and focusing on meeting their needs, is the very hallmark of a successful organization. Peter's and Waterman called this "sticking to the knitting". In the corporate world where TQM has had its greatest success, we often see companies moving away from disparate conglomerates and focusing on just one central business emphasis. Until the literature contains reports on TQM's effectiveness with organizations where it is common to have trifurcated expectations for employees, as research universities do to their professors (teaching, research, and service) where different sets of customers are expected to ascertain quality (students assessing teaching, peers assessing scholarship, and supervisors assessing service) one ought to be skeptical about its application to research universities.

Commendations

In spite of, or maybe because of, the very concerns expressed above, I thoroughly enjoyed this book. Lewis and Smith say TQM begins with vision. Accordingly, I imagined myself working at a institution where this book was required reading. Of course, the most interesting part of the fantasy was not being asked to read the book, but the rich discussions the reading stimulated. However, the best aspect of my "vision" were the discussions that ensued about collecting data and making systemic improvements so that our students would graduate more capable and more satisfied.

At the rare higher education institution where the faculty is willing to challenge the status quo, this book is packed full of good examples, worksheets, and readings. Likewise, the higher education student and scholar who is interested in challenging their own thinking with new methods to improve productivity will find in this book a source of inspiration and insight.

But, is not for those reasons that I wish to make it required reading at my university. For we are neither that committed to change, nor are we all scholars of the field of higher education and/or management. Rather, the reason why I would love for our faculty to read *Total Quality in Higher Education* is not because the book raises the "why" of TQM, but because one can't put this book down (if one cares about students, universities, or the world of higher education), without asking, "why not."

Richard D. Sagor is Associate Professor of Educational Leadership at Washington State University, Vancouver, WA.

Hiring Right

Hiring Right: A Practical Guide **by Susan J. Herman. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc., 1994, 177pp**

Reviewed by Katrin Spinetta

As the title implies, this is a comprehensive, practical handbook with step-by-step procedures and suggestions for hiring the right person at the right time for an organization. "The basic goal of human resource planning is to make sure that you hire the right number of people who not only have the skills and abilities to do the job as it currently exists, but who are also able to adapt to the organization's changing challenges and who also fit is with the spirit and culture of the organization." [p.3]

In nine chapters, the book systematically takes the reader through the elements needed to create a human resource master plan, reviews legal issues related to employment, writing job specifications, recruitment efforts, design and evaluation of job applications, employee testing, interviews, reference checks and negotiation of the final contract. Short exercises and worksheets serve as a complete hiring strategy which the hiring manager can customize to his or her own organization and specific hiring needs.

Especially useful are the many tables and forms scattered throughout the book, summarizing key steps or processes, for example, the semistructured job analysis questionnaire, interview evaluation form and interview process checklist and reference check forms.

Of particular interest was the chapter on conducting interviews. According to the author, not only is the interview "a terrible predictor of job success," it can be invalid, unreliable, and even potentially illegal. "Ironically," the author notes, "the interview, as the most frequently used selection tool, is the least valid." There is a low correlation (.1) between the interview and actual job performance. Interviews should be one tool, the author underscores, not the sole deciding factor in hiring. Decisions to hire should be based on information supplied in resumes and cover letters, applications, prescreening phone interviews, employee testing, and reference checks, as well as an in-depth colleague interview.

Short case studies are presented throughout the book, illustrating not only what went wrong in the hiring process, but, on a more positive note, what went right. These scenarios or vignettes can serve as useful discussion topics for students enrolled in a management or educational administration program. Students can study the underlying organizational behavior, industrial relations, and human resource management theories that apply and inform different points of view. Notes at the end of each chapter enable students to refer to other books and articles germane to the topic for a more in-depth understanding of the issue or topic.

Some practitioners may find the book too generic or broad-based, attempting to address the hiring needs of every organization from "a two-person business, a five-person department, or a multinational corporation." Some hiring managers may desire a more industry or organization specific manual or one that addresses a particular developmental stage—a start-up company, a merger and acquisition, an expanding or downsizing business. However, as the author points out, regardless of the size, location, or type of business, the process of analyzing the company's organization's personnel needs and the development of systems to meet those needs, whether external or internal, are similar. The key is systematic, conscientious, advance planning. The manual supplies the basics and directs the manager to comprehensively think about all aspects of a decision to hire.

The manual has particular relevance for educational institutions, because hiring is often the first step toward permanency, whether in a tenured faculty or staff position. Since personnel costs comprise such a large portion of school, college, and university budgets and those budgets have not seen, nor can they anticipate any sizable increases in the foreseeable future, it is key that administrators carefully manage human resources. Advance planning, as noted, is critical.

"Hiring right" is a time-consuming process, but, as the author points out, will save the institution or organization a lot of money in the long run in lost wages and productivity, orientation and training costs, advertising, relocation and travel expenses, potential legal costs, severance pay, and employee morale. This book should be required reading for all persons involved in the hiring process.

Katrin Spinetta, Ed.D., is Director of Institutional Development in the Peralta Community College District, Oakland, California.

Appraisals

Making the Most of Appraisal: Career and Professional Development Planning for Lecturers by Graham Webb, London: Kogan Page Limited, 1994, 158pp

Reviewed by Margaret L. Durham & Albert B. Smith

Despite the recent outcry by some scholars against performance appraisals as a component of effective personnel management, it appears that, for the time being at least, appraisal is here to stay. In *Making the Most of Appraisal*, Graham Webb offers a practical, step-by-step method for academics to use in transforming the inevitable performance appraisal into a tool for professional development. This well-organized volume is very easy to read and is of great potential use as a professional development plan, for veteran academics as well as those just starting their careers.

In Chapter One, Webb introduces the rationale behind the book. He explains that even though performance appraisal typically is seen as a negative experience, astute faculty members can take certain steps to turn it into a positive experience with professional growth as a result. While Webb agrees with many contemporary scholars that performance appraisal is not completely appropriate or effective in higher education, he accepts that it is a fact of academic life, and suggests ways to capitalize on the positive opportunities it presents. Emphasis is on the need to prepare for the appraisal in advance, using

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the steps outlined in the remainder of the book.

Chapter Two, "Where Am I Now With My Career?" describes in detail the first step to be taken in preparing for appraisal. Questions which academics should be asking themselves about their own careers are suggested. Chapter Two also includes the first appearance of a series of fictional case studies. The cases include a diverse group of five academics at different stages of their careers and with different goals. The case studies are introduced in this chapter for purposes of evaluating where a career stands at present, and they are introduced again in later chapters as they relate to the subject being discussed.

In Chapter Three, faculty are encouraged to examine where they are going with their careers. Caution is given about the constraints placed on individuals by structural factors such as gender, class origin, and teaching versus research. Academics are also encouraged to be realistic when defining career goals, particularly with regard to consequences of events that have already occurred in their careers. The fictional case studies are again presented, this time with career goal objectives based on examination of where their careers are now.

Chapter Four is the longest in the book and deals with where faculty members are with their teaching. Webb uses this chapter to answer some commonly heard arguments against student evaluation of teaching, as well as to suggest some alternatives to it. The difference between evaluating teaching for institutional purposes and for development purposes is emphasized, and steps for accomplishing and interpreting both are offered.

Chapter Five deals with where academics are going with their teaching, suggesting that once teaching has been evaluated and reflected upon, ideas for development should be identified and implemented. A discussion of teaching and research is followed by another look at the five fictional cases and how they arrived at strategies for developing their teaching based on evaluation of it.

In Chapter Six, "Where Am I Now With My Research?", Webb explains the "publish or perish" situation in which most university faculty find themselves, and then dispels some common myths about research by citing studies. Particularly interesting was the finding that there is no strong association between teaching performance and research productivity. The remainder of this chapter is one of the most valuable (if disturbing) parts of the book, as it reveals the many inequities in the various traditional methods of evaluating research.

Chapter Seven, "Where Am I Going With My Research?", addresses the problems of research life cycles and making time for research. The case studies appear again in this chapter, as examples for how faculty members can create an action plan for improving the status of their research. The chapter concludes with additional suggestions for development in the area of research.

Other responsibilities, such as administration, external academic work, and external earnings, are addressed in Chapter Eight. We are introduced again to the five fictional academics and shown how each of them, having evaluated and made a plan for teaching and research, now does so for their other responsibilities as well. Chapter Nine deals with the specifics of the appraisal interview itself, such as paperwork, aims of the appraisal, setting, and the appraiser. Specific suggestions for the discussion process itself are presented, followed by a checklist to use in preparing for the appraisal interview.

Making the Most of Appraisal is a book which can be very useful to anyone in higher education who seeks to continue professional development. Webb's points are made simply and clearly, in layman's language; and are supported by numerous current studies. It would behoove anyone just starting an academic career to read this book, particularly those who have no training or background in higher education and do not know what to expect. At the same time, experienced faculty can benefit from Webb's strategy for evaluating the various aspects of academic careers and turning performance appraisal interviews into vehicles for professional growth.

Margaret L. Durham, Graduate Assistant, Higher Education Doctoral Program, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas.
Albert B. Smith, Professor and Coordinator, Higher Education Doctoral Program, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas

Part-Time Faculty

Strangers in Their Own Land: Part-Time Faculty In American Community Colleges **by John E. Roueche, Suanne D. Roueche, and Mark D. Milliron. Washington, DC: American Association of Community Colleges, 1995, 196 pp.**

Reviewed by James C. Palmer

John Roueche, Suanne Roueche, and Mark Milliron begin and end this book with the observation that it is futile to debate the merits of employing part-time faculty. Part-timers are here to stay, they argue, reflecting the growing tendency of society to rely on a contingent work force. For the authors, the real question is how colleges will "integrate, train, and provide part-timers with acceptable levels of institutional support" (p. 19).

Thus, the study reported in this book is eminently practical, examining the extent to which community colleges rely on part-timers and showcasing potentially useful approaches to hiring, orienting, evaluating, and developing these important educators. The study was conducted in two stages. First, a questionnaire was sent to a stratified random sample of colleges, soliciting information on the overall use of part-timers during the fall of 1993 and asking "for help. . .in locating districts or colleges that have exceptional programs in effectively utilizing part-time/adjunct faculty" (p. 161). Responding colleges were encouraged to identify their own institutions "if they believed their own programs and policies were effective" (p. 38). Staff from these institutions were then contacted and interviewed during the second stage of the study. The researchers also asked for any documents (such as part-time faculty handbooks or evaluation portfolios) that help describe institutional practices.

A major strength of the book is its introductory review of the literature. Here the authors set the stage for their study with a skillful and hard-hitting analysis of what is known about part-timers. Gaps in the knowledge-base are fully exposed, as are weaknesses in administrative approaches to the use of part-time teachers. For example, the authors question proposed staffing ratios that would limit the proportion of part-timers within college faculties. "In reality," they note, "there are limited hard data to support whether part-time faculty are any better or any worse than full-time faculty" (p. 18). By the same token, however, the authors also question the adequacy of inservice training and other institutional support for part-time instructors. Noting the tendency for colleges to use part-timers in general education and remedial courses, the authors contend that "the underprepared student in the community college is very likely to be taught by an 'underprepared' instructor—at least in terms of organizational support" (p. 17).

Subsequent chapters then outline study findings, first summarizing empirical data on the use of part-timers and then describing institutional practices in four administrative areas: recruitment and hiring; orienting new part-timers to the college; professional development and integration into the college; and performance evaluation. The empirical findings, which draw on results from the first stage of the study, are briefly delineated in one chapter. They reveal that part-timers made up 58% of the faculty at the responding colleges and were responsible for 34% of the credit-hour production at the institutions. Larger colleges were more likely to employ part-timers, as were colleges within urban, multi-college districts. In addition, there was a significant correlation between the number of part-time students enrolled and the proportion of part-time instructors within the faculty. Because previous studies suggest that "part-time faculty are more likely to teach at the times (night classes), at the level (developmental), and within the type of courses (general education) in which part-time students typically enroll," the authors speculate that part-time students may be more likely than full-time students to be instructed by part-time faculty.

But it is the descriptions of administrative practice, drawn from the second stage of the study, that take up most of the book. For each of the four areas covered, the authors summarize what is known from previous literature and then offer brief descriptions of college practices under several headings. Most of these descriptions are strung out on a paragraph-by-paragraph basis. The following, drawn from the chapter on recruitment and hiring, is an example:

> **Greenville Technical College's** extensive advisory committee program plays a major recruiting role, as many part-timers are identified through committee contacts. In highly technical areas, college personnel find that contacting advisory committee members for referrals provides the college with well-qualified part-timers. In less specialized areas, such as math and English, more extensive recruitment is required because there are few specific organizations available for referrals.
>
> **Hagerstown Junior College** works closely with two organizations—a military base and the Service Corps of Retired Executives. Retirements and downsizing in the military have created some valuable pools of part-timers; retired executives, contacted through the chamber of commerce, are proving to be more educated and more vital than at any time in the county's history.

And so on for several pages. Occasionally, the authors break from this pattern to provide lengthier treatments of unusual practices. For example, several paragraphs are devoted to the English department at one of the campuses of the Community College of Allegheny County. The recruitment and hiring of part-timers in this department are managed by a part-time faculty coordinator, a full-time faculty member selected by his or her departmental colleagues. This constitutes a "notable exception to the general observation that department chairs are responsible for hiring part-time faculty" (p. 55).

What do these vignettes tell us? The practitioner who patiently reads them will undoubtedly find many ideas for improved practice. The reader looking for overall trends in the administration of part-timers at community colleges, however, will have to draw his or her own conclusions, because the authors provide little synthesis of the practices they describe. Chapter summaries classifying the varying types of administrative approaches taken within each of the four administrative areas under consideration would have strengthened the book considerably.

In the final analysis, though, the authors' intent is action, not trend analysis. They provide a glimpse into the day-to-day management of part-timers, urging two-year colleges to "take serious steps toward improving the utilization and integration of part-time faculty" (p. 156). The concluding chapter argues that this will require colleges to "define what it wants to accomplish with part-time faculty" (p. 156), provide mandatory and meaningful orientations for these instructors, require their participation in professional development activities that are scheduled at convenient times, "offer the same array of support services that full-timers enjoy" (p. 156), evaluate part-timers "as seriously and consistently as full-timers" (p. 156), and construct equitable (though not necessarily equal) pay schedules for part-timers.

These common-sense recommendations will do little to satisfy those who would reverse the trend of hiring part-timers in the first place. But they may be helpful to administrators at the college level who must deal with the here-and-now, making the best of an entrenched tradition of part-time employment. The authors have done the great service of reminding community colleges that, for the sake of students, more can be done to make part-timers a viable educational resource

James C. Palmer is an Assistant Professor of Higher Education at Illinois State University; Campus Box 5900; Normal, IL 61790-5900.

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